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GEOGRAPHICAL, STATISTICAL, AND HISTORICAL

DESCRIPTION

OF

HINDOSTAN,

AND THE

ADJACENT COUNTRIES.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

85331

BY WALTER HAMILTON, ESQ.

VOL. I.

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TO

THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

GEORGE CANNING,

PRESIDENT OF THE BOARD OF CONTROUL,

&c. &c. &c.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour of dedicating to you the following Description of Hindostan, the affairs of which you have so ably and impartially administered, as a testimony of my great respect for your public and private character, and of gratitude for the liberal access I have had to the records at the India Board.

I have the honour to remain,

SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,

WALTER HAMILTON.

London, June 1, 1820.

PREFACE.

THE following work may be considered as an endeavour to reduce the Geography of Hindostan to a more systematic form than has yet been attempted in any prior publication, and at the same time to present a description of its internal economy more consistent with its existing condition, as a vast appendage to the British empire.—Thirty years have now elapsed since Major Rennell composed his excellent memoir on the same subject; but the revolution of time and events has so altered its political circumstances, and the progress of discovery our knowledge of its geography, that even within so short a period many of his valuable observations have become antiquated and inapplicable. The juncture also seemed favourable to a new arrangement, the result of the late operations in India having so completely established the supremacy of the British government, as to leave the native chiefs in a situation of very secondary importance. Hindostan, therefore, must not now be viewed as a mere assemblage of Nabobs, Sultans, and Rajas, but as a component portion of British empire, changed and modified in its territorial distribution by the effect of British domination, and in its internal economy by the promulgation of British laws and regulations.

In prosecution of the object above specified, and in order to give distinctness and application to the facts collected, Hindostan has been partitioned into certain large territorial divisions, the arrangement of which will be found further explained in the Introduction, and whose relative position and extent may be learned from an inspection of the prefixed map. In Hindostan Proper and the Deccan, the old Mogul provinces of Abul Fazel have been continued, as notwithstanding the vicissitudes of ages they still maintain their place in the public mind,

and are sufficiently accurate for the purpose contemplated. With respect to the South of India, as it has been for almost twenty years governed by British functionaries, their arrangements and appellations have been adhered to. For the first of the series, Bengal has been selected, not only because it contains the modern metropolis and seat of the supreme government, but also on account of the superior importance of the materials from which its description is composed. The other provinces follow in succession according to contiguity, the arrangement entirely resembling what would take place were a delineation of England begun with the county of Kent, and continued on county by county to the banks of the Tweed. Each province is introduced by a general exposition, after which the towns, districts, and native states (if any) follow, until the whole space comprehended within its limits has undergone examination; but with regard to amplitude of narrative, that has entirely depended on the abundance or scarcity of authentic documents having reference to the subject under discussion. In some instances, the historical details will be found copious, while the geographical and statistical are defective, or altogether wanting; in others the reverse will be perceptible.

In specifying the extent of countries, the whole length, but only the average breadth is given, to enable the reader to ascertain the probable area in square miles. In an arrangement of this nature strict accuracy cannot be expected, but it appeared less vague than the usual mode of stating the extreme length and extreme breadth; an approximation to the reality being all that is required. The same observation applies to the population of countries that have not been subjected to strict investigation. When such occur, a comparison of their peculiar circumstances is instituted with those of the adjacent provinces, the population of which is better known, and an estimate computed from the result. Where the number of inhabitants has been established on probable grounds, it is particularly mentioned. To facilitate the discovery of a place on the map, besides the latitude and longitude, its nearest distance from some distinguished city is stated, and also the province within which it is comprehended. The east, west, north, and south sides of

rivers, and the compass distances, in a great majority of cases, refer to their position in Mr. Arrowsmith's large map; the length of the rivers, including their windings, are calculated according to the rules laid down in Major Rennell's Memoir, from which also the travelling distances are extracted. When not otherwise specified, the standard of distance and dimension is invariably the English mile, 69½ to the degree. Those mentioned by Abul Fazel are commonly the extreme length and extreme breadth, and the quotas of troops he enumerates mean the whole militia (probably the Zemindary Pykes) that the province was supposed capable of furnishing on any pressing exigence, not the actual number ever produced.

The map prefixed exhibits the large geographical divisions, but being constructed on so small a scale, it was found impossible to distinguish either the petty native states, whose territories are much intermixed, or the different districts into which the British provinces have been partitioned. With respect to the first, no native state has yet been brought to understand the advantages we are accustomed to see in a compact territory and uninterrupted frontier; and with regard to the latter, the limits of none can be considered as finally adjusted, the judicial and police arrangements requiring frequent revisal of boundaries, and various surveys being still in progress, with the view of obtaining more accurate geographical and statistical information than the Indian governments at present possess. Owing to these imperfections a town may be frequently assigned to one jurisdiction which in reality belongs to another, but the mistake is of no essential importance, and many such corrections must hereafter be required, the limits of no district having yet attained such precision and arrangement as to preclude the necessity of future alteration. The descriptions which follow, having been composed and arranged with the closest attention to Mr. Arrowsmith's large map of Hindostan, that work may be considered as the basis of the whole, and indeed is quite indispensable to any person who wishes to acquire a thorough knowledge of its geography. To that delineation, therefore, nearly all the latitudes, longitudes, and distances have reference; but of course many of these will hereafter experience correction, the very best maps,

although right in the main outlines, being still deficient in accuracy as to the relative position of places. In like manner the local functionaries will probably see much to amend with regard to the comparative importance of the towns selected, some, perhaps, having now no existence although of great historical notoriety, while others may be too insignificant to deserve insertion in a work where others of greater magnitude have been omitted. When the narrative and the prefixed map disagree, the first, as being founded on a projection of superior authenticity, must be considered the most correct.

A primary object of the present publication having been to combine facility of reference with the connexion necessary to adapt it for regular perusal, a copious Index of the names of places is given at the conclusion, by the assistance of which the reader will be enabled to have recourse directly to the article he is in search of, while at the same time in the narration the continual transitions of a gazetteer are avoided. In arranging the alphabetical distribution the usual difficulty has been experienced, resulting from the great diversity of appellations employed to designate the same place, a source of perplexity not only to the geographer, but to every individual who has occasion to peruse letters dated from the interior of India. In the following work (as in a prior one) almost the whole of Mr. Arrowsmith's names of places have been adopted, as being those most universally known, and to facilitate the discovery of their situations in his map. In many of the most remarkable instances the original denomination is also inserted, according to Sir William Jones's Orthographical System; but although a name be not strictly applicable, if generally understood, it is desirable it should continue permanent, as a deviation even to one more appropriate causes much confusion. If some steps be not taken by the ruling authorities at home and abroad, the ultimate decision regarding the pronunciation of names not of frequent occurrence may be long procrastinated, but, in the mean time, many of the principal, such as Bengal, Calcutta, the Carnatic, &c. although in reality erroneous, have been universally adopted, and certainly answer every useful purpose. Under these circumstances it is extremely desirable that the Honourable Court of

Directors make adhesion to one set of names (to be fixed on at the different Presidencies) imperative on their servants, and prohibit the substitution of any supposed improvements in the public correspondence. The deities of the Hindoos have still a greater variety of names, or rather epithets, than their towns (Vishnu, for example, has one thousand); the most common have been selected and adhered to throughout, and the same plan has been followed with regard to the designation of persons, tribes, and castes. In the composition of the narrative, oriental terms have been usually avoided, but, from the nature of the subject, could not be wholly dispensed with. Of those of most frequent recurrence an explanation will be found in the short Glossary annexed.

The materials from which this description of Hindostan has been prepared, consist of printed documents generally accessible to the public, and of the manuscript records deposited at the India Board, regarding which a few explanatory observations will be necessary.* It is the practice of each presidency to transmit half yearly, or according to the exigence more frequent reports on the political, financial, and judicial condition of their respective governments, accompanied by copies of the correspondence that has taken place with their subordinate functionaries, and registered on the government consultations, when the subject was of sufficient consequence to entitle it to the attention of the controuling authorities in England, or otherwise illustrative of any important conclusion. These official records are extremely voluminous, but their contents rarely bear directly on statistical subjects, the discussions having generally originated in some accidental irregularities, such as the robbery of treasure, disputed boundaries and other controversies of difficult adjustment, the irruptions of foreign tribes, defalcations of revenue, or the pupillage of native chiefs; occasionally from the spontaneous suggestions of the officers of government, and brought under the notice of the Court of Directors with a view to the eventual adoption of such as might appear calculated to prove of practical utility. Where no events similar to those above alluded to have taken place, and the tranquillity of the province has continued undisturbed by war or controversy, no correspondence has resulted, and the internal condition

of the territory has remained so completely unnoticed, that the circumstances of many of the Company's old districts of great wealth and population are less known to the public than those of remote tracts, the very names of which are recent discoveries.

To the foregoing description of the manuscript records, as not having direct reference to the subject, one remarkable exception occurs, which is, the survey of the districts of Dinagepoor, Rungpoor, Purneah, Boglipoor and Bahar, by Dr. Francis Hamilton (late Buchanan), who was deputed by the Bengal government, in the years 1807, 8, 9, 10, and 11, to ascertain and report on their internal condition, which task he executed with such singular ability and success, that it is to be regretted his reports were not immediately published by the East India Company, not only for the instruction of their own servants, but as models for future investigations of a similar nature. The mass of valuable information thus collected is comprehended in twenty-five folio volumes, accompanied by most elaborate statistical tables, and contains copious illustrations of the manners, customs, religion, &c. of the inhabitants. Frequent reference to them will be found in the following work, the plan of which, however, and the vast space embraced, precluded all circumstantial delineation of particular portions.

Among the other manuscript reports, but on a much less expanded scale, the following may be noted, viz. Mr. Sisson, on the Rungpoor district and the adjacent tribes of Bootan, Assam, the Garrows, and Morung; Lieutenant A. Ross, on the Alpine tract comprehended between the Sutuleje and Jumna; Mr. N. Macleod, on Lassa and Tibet; Colonel Alexander Walker, on Cattywar and the Gujerat peninsula; Captain Macmurdo, on Cutch and Cattywar; Mr. Thackeray, on Canara, Malabar and the Balaghaut Ceded Districts; Sir Henry Wellesley, on the Ceded Districts of Oude; Lieutenant White, on the Agra and Delhi provinces; Mr. C. Lloyd, on the district of Moradabad; Captain Canning on the Birman Empire; and Sir David Ochterlony, on the petty Seik States. The valuable printed reports by Sir Henry Strachey, Sir Thomas Munro, Mr. Hodgson, Mr. Thackeray and others, will be found in the Appendix to the 5th Report.

The authorities upon which each description is founded are carefully subjoined in succession, according to their relative importance, the author being particularly desirous to give the credit where it is justly due, as well as to establish the high character of the sources from whence the original information is derived. But no person is to be considered wholly responsible for any article, the materials being frequently so intimately blended with each other, and with the result of the author's own experience during a ten years' residence in India, that it would be impossible to define the boundaries of the respective properties. In many cases the narrative is given as closely as the necessity of condensing the substance of many volumes into a small compass would permit; in others it has been necessary to compare contradictory and conflicting testimonies, and select that which appeared to rest on the most solid foundation. In particular instances, which it has been found impossible to discriminate, although certain names are annexed as authorities for statistical facts, the inferences drawn from these as to the progressive, stationary, or declining state of the society, are exactly the reverse of those adopted by the individuals quoted. In the official correspondence of the different presidencies, the surveys and reports of one functionary are sometimes incorporated with those of another, or cited without the marks of quotation, so that occasionally the statement of one public officer may have been attributed to another; but with all these disadvantages it will be clearly perceptible, that the details were generally collected under circumstances singularly favourable for the obtaining of information, and by persons best qualified from length of service, residence on the spot, and established reputation, to form a correct judgment of their authenticity.

At the conclusion of the second volume a List of the Authorities will be found, and it will no doubt be remarked, that many of the ablest servants of the company, those for example who have been promoted on account of their superior talents to the office of secretary, or to a seat in Council, are seldom or never referred to by name. This, however, arises from the nature of the documents they were concerned in, which not having been the composition of any individual, but the result of the

deliberations of the different boards in a collective capacity, their contents could not be ascribed to any particular person. Such records have been distinguished in the list by the appellation of "Public manuscript documents," and indeed, with regard to statistics, must have been compiled from the prior reports of the local functionaries. That more has not been done in this respect by the latter, will surprise no one who is acquainted with the intolerable load of business, both civil and criminal, by which they are oppressed, and the unwearied endeavours of a great majority to accomplish their arduous and responsible duties. Whatever laws may be enacted, or measures of policy be adopted, for the government of such distant possessions, inhabited by a people so dissimilar in language and manners to the European nations, their efficacy must essentially depend on the character of the functionaries to whom their execution is delegated. That these have hitherto been equal to the exigence, the page of history leaves little reason to doubt; and that they have not degenerated may be fairly presumed from the high reputation of the three candidates (Sir John Malcolm, the Honourable Mr. Elphinstone, and Sir Thomas Munro) who recently presented themselves for the governments of Bombay and Madras.

The composition of this publication having been undertaken with a view to the information of persons who have never visited India, and as a substitute for the numerous volumes in which the local descriptions are dispersed, not only Oriental phrases have as much as possible been avoided, but also every abstract or intricate discussion, as tending to injure the utility of a work in its nature elementary. The necessity of condensation also precluded all minute details or the investigation of disputed facts, and rendered it requisite in most instances to contract the historical part to a chronological series of sovereigns and remarkable events, accompanied by such observations as appeared necessary to connect and elucidate them. Indeed the labour has been chiefly that of selecting, comparing, arranging, and condensing; and the sheets of manuscript perused in the course of it, were so numerous, that the work might have been expanded to an indefinite bulk. In general what appeared most interesting and important, with a view either to political

application, or as illustrative of the state of society, has been selected, and such usages described as have subsisted for the greatest length of time with the fewest variations or infringements. Conciseness has been particularly aimed at, but probably the reader who views two such ponderous volumes will think with doubtful success. It must be recollected, however, that it is impossible to describe so vast and populous a country in a small compass, or by a few general phrases, none of which apply universally; and that unless the information conveyed has distinct and local reference, it leaves no definite impression on the mind. Although, in some cases, owing to a redundance of materials, much has been suppressed and expunged, in others the descriptions will be found extremely incomplete, exhibiting little more than the geographical features of the tracts under examination, yet most of these have been repeatedly traversed by British Officers and civil functionaries, who either preserved no memoranda of their condition, or when they did, have not given them publicity. It is obvious, however, that a satisfactory delineation of so immense an empire must be the result of a progressive accumulation of facts on the precision of which reliance can be placed, and that acquiescence in the prior details of accidental travellers tends to perpetuate error. Many of the statements here collected will probably require future correction, many remote tracts and sources of information remain to be explored, and new discoveries hereafter will disturb and confound all previous systems and arrangements. To these heavy detractions from the utility of this publication may be added the still more serious one, of the author's having undertaken a task to which he feels himself unequal; but it must, on the other hand, be considered, that, since those who are better qualified will not submit to the labour, it is desirable the work should be done, even imperfectly, rather than not at all.

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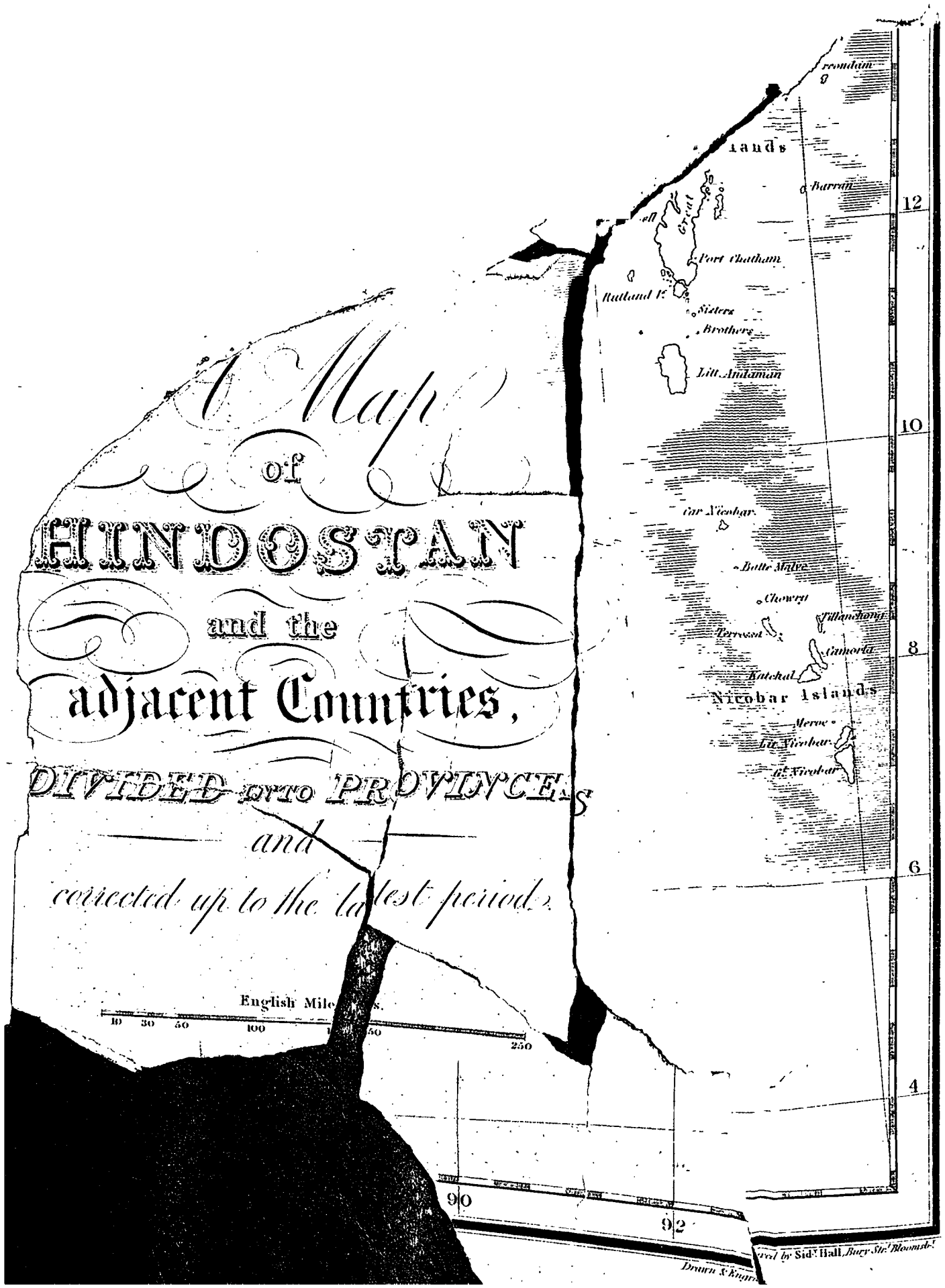

Map
of
HINDOSTAN
and the
adjacent Countries,
DIVIDED INTO PROVINCES
and
corrected up to the latest period.
English Mile
10 30 50 100 250
Barran
Great
Port Chatham
Rutland I.
Sisters
Brothers
Litt. Andaman
Car Nicobar
Batte Malve
Chowry
Tillanchong
Terressa
Camorta
Katchal
Nicobar Islands
Meroe
Lit. Nicobar
Gt. Nicobar
12
10
8
6
4
90
92
Drawn & Engr

INTRODUCTION.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF HINDOSTAN.

THIS extensive region is situated in the south-eastern quarter of Asia, where it is nearly comprehended between the latitudes of 8° and 35° north, and the longitudes of 68° and 92° east. The extreme length from north to south is about 1900 miles, and the extreme breadth from east to west about 1500; but on account of the irregularity of its figure the total superficial area cannot be estimated at more than 1,280,000 English square miles.

According to the ancients, India, on it most enlarged scale, comprised an extent of forty degrees on each side, including a space almost as large as all Europe, being divided on the west from Persia by the Arachosian Mountains; limited on the east by the Chinese part of the peninsula beyond the Ganges; confined on the north by the wilds of Tartary; and stretching south as far as the Sunda Isles. These expanded limits comprehended the stupendous hills of Tibet, the romantic valley of Cashmere, and all the domains of the old Indoscythians, the countries of Nepaul, Bootan, Camroop, and Assam, together with Siam, Ava, Arracan, and the bordering kingdoms as far as the China of the Hindoos, and the Sin of the Arabian geographers, the whole western peninsula, and the Island of Ceylon.

It is difficult to discover any name applied by the Brahmins to the country over which their doctrines have prevailed, and which they generally describe by a circumlocution. Sometimes they give it the epithet of Medhyama, or central, (from its occupying the centre of the back of the tortoise that supports the world), and Punyabhumi, or land of virtue, and assert it to have been the portion of Bharat, one of nine brothers, whose father ruled the whole earth, and named after him Bharat Khand. This domain of Bharat they consider as the centre of Jambhudwipa, which the Tibetians call the land of Zambu. At other times the Brahmins describe their country as the space between the Himalaya mountains and Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon, for Cape Comorin as a geographical point never appears to have attracted any attention. The modern name of Hindostan is a Persian appellation, derived from the words Hindoo, black, and

the coasts of Coromandel and Malabar the sides, with the apex at Cape Comorin. The modern territorial and political subdivisions are the following, viz.—

1. Canara.
2. Malabar.
3. Cochin.
4. Travancore.
5. The Balaghaut Ceded Districts.
6. Mysore.
7. Coimbatoor.
8. Salem and the Barramahal.
9. The Carnatic.

There are few sea coasts of such extent, so destitute of islands as that of Hindostan; indeed, exclusive of emerged sand banks and mere rocks, it may be said to possess only one, Ceylon, with which the geographical survey in this quarter terminates. Proceeding on, the next objects that come under consideration are the boundary countries, of which such portions only are examined as come into immediate contact with Hindostan, beginning from the southwest; and on account of its local position, it has been thought best to insert Northern Hindostan along with the mountainous territories to which it is most contiguous.

1. Baloochistan.
2. Afghanistan.
3. Tibet.
4. Northern Hindostan.
5. Bootan.
6. Assam.
7. States adjacent to Assam.
8. Ava and the Birman empire.

The size and relative position of the different provinces will be more satisfactorily learned from an inspection of the Map prefixed, than from any written explanation, however minute; and each of them being in the course of the work described topographically, for further local details the reader is directed to the distinct heads respectively; what observations immediately follow having reference to Hindostan in general.

The principal geological features of this region are the vast Gangetic plain, the great sandy desert of the Indus, the elevated table land above the Ghauts, and the Himalayan, Vindhyan, and Ghaut chains of mountains with their subordinate ranges. There are no lakes of any considerable magnitude, but many morasses, especially an enormous saline one named the Runn. There are no volcanoes in a state of activity, nor is the existence of extinguished ones clearly established. Earthquakes, although frequent, with the exception of one in Cutch, of very recent occurrence, have never been destructive. The seasons, winds, and rains are periodical, and throughout the whole space, what are called the monsoons more or less prevail. Within the geographical limits of Hindostan every degree of temperature is to be found, from burning heat to perpetual congelation; but with the exception of an Alpine tract among the northern mountains, the climate is strictly tropical, and promotes the growth of all con-

genial fruits, plants, and vegetables in the most luxuriant profusion, although the soil in most parts wants strength and tenacity. Minerals are abundant, but little worked, and there are few countries that spontaneously produce so great a variety of saline substances.

But the glory of Hindostan is its noble rivers, and more especially the venerable Ganges, which at once fertilizes the soil, and serves for the transport of its matured productions. In the rainy seasons the mountain torrents swell in a wonderful manner, and within a few hours frequently rise 20 feet above their usual level, rushing down with much uproar and rapidity. The larger streams generally begin to increase before the rains fall in the low countries, which circumstance is equally remarked of rivers, such as the Nerbudda and Tuptee, that do not spring from cold countries, as it is of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, whose sources benefit by the snows of Himalaya. In the dry season they proceed to the ocean over their broad sandy beds with a slow and sluggish stream, but when swelled by the periodical rains, their course is furious, and destructive to the villages placed too near their banks. On the other hand, some rivers, such as the Sereswati, mentioned in ancient Hindoo writings as being of great bulk and importance, have, in later times, wholly disappeared. In general the rivers have retained their original appellations better than the cities or provinces, the latter having often had their designations altered from vanity or religious motives. The following are the names of the principal streams, with their probable length of course to the sea, including the windings, but there are many others omitted that would be reckoned large rivers in Europe.

	Miles to the Sea.	*In the Deccan and South of India.*	
Indus	1,700	The Godavery	850
Brahmaputra	1,650	Krishna	700
Ganges	1,500	Nerbudda	700
Jumna (to its junction with the Ganges 780)	1,500	Mahanuddy	550
Sutuleje (to the Indus 900)	1,400	Tuptee	460
Jhylum (ditto 750)	1,250	Cavery	400
Gunduck (to the Ganges 450)	980		

The harvest in Hindostan Proper is divided into two periods; the first is cut in September and October, and the second in March and April. Rice is the grand article of nourishment, and the chief object of attention in the cultivation of it is to have the soil plentifully supplied with water. Indeed, while travelling through Hindostan, a tolerably correct judgment may be formed of the wisdom

of the government and condition of the people, from viewing the number and state of preservation of the tanks, watercourses, and other conduits for the irrigation of the fields. In this country the wages of the labouring cultivator are limited to a mere subsistence, which is not the case in Europe. In the latter, the labourer's expenditure consists not only of food, but also of many accessaries, such as a cottage, furniture, clothing, and liquor, so that in times of scarcity when grain becomes dear, he finds a temporary resource in abstaining from or parting with some of these superfluities. The working classes of Hindostan are not so well circumstanced, for their wages being little more than the mere expense of their food, they are utterly destitute if it rise, having no reserve for emergencies.

That the Hindoos were in early ages a commercial people, we have many reasons to believe; and, in the first of their sacred law tracts, which they suppose to have been revealed by Menu, many millions of years ago, there is a curious passage respecting the legal interest of money, and the limited rate of it in different cases, with an exception in regard to adventures by sea. The three great articles of general importation from India by the Greeks and Romans were, 1st, spices; 2dly, precious stones and pearls; 3dly, silk. Their exports to India were woollen cloth of a slight fabric, linen in chequer work, some precious stones, and some aromatics unknown in India, coral, storax, glass vessels of different kinds, wrought silver, Italian, Greek, and Arabian wines, brass, tin, lead, girdles and sashes, melilot, white glass, red arsenic, black lead, and gold and silver. Of the last mentioned metal the influx to Hindostan has always been very great, as the inhabitants sell much, and purchase little, the balance is consequently always in their favour. A great deal of bullion is supposed to be annually lost by being concealed under ground by the natives, many of whom die without revealing the site of their hidden treasure, and the practice of hoarding is among all ranks of Hindoos almost universal. For many centuries past cotton piece goods have been the grand staple of Hindostan, but latterly, owing to the great improvements in Europe, the quantity exported has considerably diminished. The various sorts fabricated in different provinces from the northern mountains to Cape Comorin, are too numerous to admit of particular detail, and for further information regarding the agriculture, manufactures, and commerce of Hindostan, the reader is referred to the provinces and cities respectively, more especially to the descriptions of Bengal, Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. In the mean time it may be safely asserted, that with so vast an extent of fertile soil, peopled by so many millions of tractable and industrious inhabitants, Hindostan is capable of supplying the whole world with any species

of tropical merchandise, the production being, in fact, only limited by the demand.

India was little known to the Greeks until Alexander's expedition, about 327 years before Christ. The following particulars, selected from the ancient descriptions of India by Arrian and other authors, will shew how nearly the ancient inhabitants resemble the present.

1. The slender make of their bodies.
2. Their living on vegetable food.
3. Distribution into sects and classes.
4. Marriages at seven years of age, and the prohibition of marriages between different castes.
5. The men wearing earrings and party coloured shoes, also veils covering the head and part of the shoulders.
6. Daubing their faces with colours.
7. Only the principal persons having umbrellas carried over them.
8. Two-handed swords, and bows drawn by the feet.
9. The manner of taking elephants, the same as at present.
10. Manufactures of cotton of extraordinary whiteness; and the plant named carpas-us as at present.
11. Monstrous ants, by which the termites or white ants are meant.
12. Wooden houses on the banks of large rivers to be occasionally removed as the river changed its course.
13. The tala, or tal tree, a kind of palm.
14. The banyan trees, and the Indian devotees sitting under them.

The Greeks have not left us any means of knowing with accuracy what vernacular languages were prevalent in India on their arrival. The radical language of India is the Sanscrit; of which such is the antiquity, that neither history nor tradition has preserved any account of a people of whom it was the living tongue. From this source the most ancient derivatives are the Prakrit, the Bali, and the Zend. The first is the language which contains the greater part of the sacred books of the Jainas; the Bali is equally revered among the followers of Buddha; while the Zend, or sacred language of ancient Persia, has long enjoyed a similar rank among the worshippers of fire, and been the depository of the sacred books of Zoroaster. There is reason to believe that ten polished dialects formerly prevailed in as many different civilized nations, which occupied the whole extent of Hindostan. The Saraswata, the Kanoje, the Gour, the Maithila, and the Orissa, are denominated the five Gaurs; the five Dravirs are, the Tamul, the Maharatta, the Carnata, the Telinga, and the Gujara. The modern dialects are the following, which have nine-tenths of their words in common, the basis

of the whole being the Sanscrit, and except the Hindostany, which is the universal language of intercourse, they are all local: viz.

The Hindostany.	Gujeratty.	Harowty.	Maithila
Bengalese.	Concanese.	Malwah.	Nepaulese.
Cashmere.	Punjaby.	Bruj.	Orissa.
Dogura.	Bicanere.	Bundelcund.	Telinga.
Ooch.	Marwar.	Maharatta.	Carnata.
Sindy.	Jeypoor.	Magadha.	Tamul.
Cutch.	Odeypoor.	Koshala.	

On the east we find the Sanscrit language arrested by the Khasee, the Birman, and other Indo-Chinese languages, and on the west by the Pushtoo, or Afghan, and the Baloochy.

That any general similitude of manners existed before the Mahommedan invasion is very doubtful, but certainly there are in modern times strong shades of difference in the characters of the Hindoos dispersed over the several provinces. Travelling through Hindostan, from Cape Comorin, for example, up the Carnatic, the Deccan, and through Bengal to Cashmere, an extent of above 25 degrees of latitude, under many general points of resemblance, a very great variety of habits, languages, and religious observances is perceptible, nearly as great as a native of India would remark were he journeying from Gibraltar to St. Petersburgh. The character of the Maharattas, nurtured in war and depredation, differs much from the placid natives of the south, and the unmartial population of Bengal. Those who inhabit the northern territories between the Nerbudda and the Indus, are almost all (or pretend to be) of a military tribe, the caste of Rajpoots or Rajwars, who are governed by petty chiefs, and divided into small independent principalities, which, until reluctantly compelled to adopt more pacific habits, were engaged in never-ceasing conflict with each other. The great mass of the Hindoo and Mahommedan population throughout Hindostan has nearly attained the same stage of civilization, but intermixed with them are certain races of mountaineers, probably the true aborigines, whose languages have little affinity with the Sanscrit, and whose customs retain all their primitive barbarity. The most remarkable of these tribes are the Gonds, Bheels, and Coolies; but there are many others of less note, such as the hill people of Boglipoor, and the Kookies of Chittagong. In the capital settlements, and in the larger towns within the British dominions, some few of the natives attempt to imitate the manners of Europeans, and almost adopt their dress; but they receive no encouragement from the class they are endeavouring to conciliate, and invariably lose the estimation of their own tribe in proportion as they deviate from its usages.

The two great religious persuasions of Hindostan are the Hindoo and Mahommedan, whose relative numbers throughout the whole empire are probably in the proportion of seven of the first to one of the last. By Europeans the term Hindoo is in general so very loosely and inaccurately applied, as to include religions, such as the Buddhist and Jain, professing tenets in direct opposition to the Brahminical system. Indeed, Hindoo mythology is a subject as inexhaustible as it is difficult to render intelligible, and can only be slightly touched upon; but viewed on the most favourable side, the following may be considered a tolerably exact sketch of its leading doctrines.

The great supreme deity Brahm remains in holy obscurity, and superstition is never allowed to profane his name, which is always kept clear of fiction. Three energies, however, the creating, preserving, and destroying, are embodied under the names of Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva, to each of whom a female or passive energy is allied. These have all human forms diversified by the imagination in various ways, and as the two last mentioned are supposed to have descended many times, each Avatar or incarnation furnishes a distinct deity to whom worship is addressed. Of the three specified, Brahma alone has no incarnations, and is never worshipped. Some of the Avatars are supposed to have been incarnations of the whole god, while others are only considered partial emanations from the divinity. Besides these three gods there is a whole pantheon of minor deities. The sea, the winds, the heavens, the elements, the sun, moon, and stars, every river, fountain, and stream is either deity in itself, or has a divinity presiding over it, nothing being done without the intervention of supernatural power. Descending still lower there are myriads of demigods, of a most extraordinary description, and numerous beyond the power of calculation. A little red paint smeered over a stone, a lump of clay, or the stump of a tree, converts it into a god, worshipped by the lower classes, and saluted by the upper with much apparent devotion. Any monster, any figure, partly brutal; any multiplicity of heads and hands in the object adored, indicate a Brahminical place of worship. The presence of umbrella covered pyramids or semi-globes, and of plain human figures sitting cross-legged, or standing in a meditative posture, point out the temple or excavation of a Buddhist; the 24 saintly figures without the pyramid announce a temple of the Jain.

Five great sects of Hindoos exclusively worship a single deity, one recognizes the five divinities that are reverenced by the other sects respectively; but the followers of this comprehensive scheme mostly select one object of daily adoration, and perform rites to the other deities on particular occasions only. The worship of Rama and Krishna, of Siva and Bhâvani, appears to have been introduced since the persecution of the Buddhists and the Jains. The establishment of the Vedas was anterior to Buddha, whose theology seems to have been bor-

rowed from the system of Capila, who forbid the slaying of animals; but the overthrow of the Buddhist sect in Hindostan has not effected the full revival of the religious system inculcated by the Vedas. Most of what is there taught is now obsolete, and in its stead new orders of devotees have arisen with new forms of religious ceremonies. Rituals founded on the Puranas and Tantras have in a great measure antiquated the institutions of the Vedas, a remarkable instance of which is the sacrifice of animals before the goddess Cali; and the adoration of Rama and Krishna have succeeded to that of the elements and planets. Sir W. Jones was of opinion that we might fix the existence of Buddha, or the ninth great incarnation of Vishnu, in the year 1014 before the birth of our Saviour. The earliest accounts of India by the Greeks who visited it with Alexander, describe the inhabitants as divided into separate tribes, consequently a sect like the modern Buddhists could not then have been the most prevalent. No modern nation, of equal civilization, remains so completely infatuated as the Hindoos are with the conviction of the potency of magic, to the effect of which every event, good or bad, is attributed. Their religious rites have in fact degenerated to mere incantations, all directed to the attainment of some end through the efficacy of a spell, and the requisite ceremonies have become so numerous and intricate, that no votary could accomplish them, were he to devote day and night to their performance.

The Hindoo religion is without any acknowledged individual superior, or public convocation; but the pre-eminence of the Brahmins is never disputed by the other castes. The true origin of this sacred order remains involved in obscurity; but at present the impression of many orientalists is, that they were originally strangers from Persia, or some portion of central Asia, and it is quite certain that the Brahminical religion formerly prevailed far west of the Indus. Even now their advance eastward is progressive. In the north-eastern parts of Bengal, Brahmins are comparatively a recent importation; the rude natives of that quarter not having long acknowledged their vast superiority, or submitted to their distinctions of purity and impurity. It is a mistake to suppose that the Brahmins do not admit of proselytes. They certainly never dreamed of admitting any stranger to a participation of their own rank, the distance being utterly immeasurable; but where it suits their interest they will class them with the military and working castes, and even condescend to perform certain ceremonies for the barbarians, which is a virtual admission within the pale of the Brahminical church. Tribes altogether vile are those for whom no person of the sacred order will perform any ceremony, unless they renounce their impure habits, and, in reality, wherever Brahmins penetrate among savage tribes a gradual and regular conversion immediately commences.

The division of the people into castes is the paramount distinction between the Brahminical Hindoos and the votaries of Buddha, but strict adherence to the peculiar duties of each caste having probably been found impracticable, they have been compelled to relax the spirit of the law, and to admit of numerous exceptions. The peculiar duty of a Brahmin is to meditate on things divine, and the proper manner of his procuring a subsistence is by begging; every species of industry being derogatory to his rank. The majority of Brahmins may, and do eat animal food; priests, while officiating as such, perhaps do not; but though all priests are Brahmins, all Brahmins are not priests. The right of bearing arms, which in early times was confined to the military caste of Khetries, has latterly been found diffused throughout all classes, and even Brahmins have been seen standing in the ranks as common soldiers. It is probable that the institution of a distinct military caste, had the effect of eradicating martial habits from the mass of the population, and contributed greatly to facilitate their subjugation by foreigners. It is generally but erroneously supposed that persons of the same caste will communicate and eat together all over India, but this is by no means the case, the intercourse being confined to a few families only in their own immediate neighbourhood, and, as far as refers to them, the residue of the same tribe are in a manner outcasts. There is something however so fascinating to the natives of India in the doctrine of caste, that the Malabar Christians, notwithstanding their conversion to a religion that sanctions no distinction, have not been able to free themselves from it, and the lower classes of Mahommedans throughout Hindostan shew a remarkable proneness towards its adoption. Compared with other nations in the same parallels of latitude, the Hindoos are certainly a superior people, although far behind the civilized inhabitants of Europe, and, in some respects, inferior even to the Chinese.

The Hindoos believe, that by the performance of extreme penances and austerities mortals may acquire supernatural power, and carelessness or rather prodigality of life has always been a remarkable feature in their character. Besides a meritorious suffering for their faith, suicide is in many cases legal and commendable, such as the immolation of a widow with her husband's corpse. In establishing their places of religious pilgrimage they have always shewn a predilection for places near the sea, the sources and junctions of rivers, the tops of remarkable hills, hot springs, caves, water-falls, in short, any natural phenomenon the access to which happened to be difficult or dangerous. Of late years a great many of the holiest fanes have had their reputation for sanctity considerably tarnished, in consequence of their having been frequently visited and examined by Europeans, but more especially by the improved system of internal

police which has abstracted all mystery from the journey, and rendered the pilgrimage too easy to be meritorious. The following are the names of several places that still retain a considerable portion of their original celebrity which must be expected, however, annually to diminish.

Juggernauth.	Somnauth.	Trimbuck Nasser.
Benares.	Ramisseram.	Perwuttum.
Gaya.	Lake Manasarovara.	Parkur.
Allahabad.	Gangoutri.	Mathura.
Tripety.	Joalamukhi.	Bindrabund.
Dwaraca.	Omercuntuc.	

The Ganges, on account of the peculiar sanctity of its waters is worshipped throughout its whole course, but there are particular spots on its banks held more sacred than others; they also venerate in an inferior degree many other rivers. Most of the holy places above enumerated are situated very distant from each other, yet appear from the remotest antiquity to have had a constant influx of pilgrims from every quarter of Hindostan, which apparently ought to have had the effect of improving their geographical system, and promoting a general knowledge of each other. But no such beneficial effects ever resulted, and owing to the total want of historical records among the Hindoos, any fable that has been retailed for one hundred years comes down to the existing race with its origin as obscure, as if it had been established for a thousand.

The modern Mahommedans may with safety be estimated at one-seventh of the total population, and notwithstanding the subversion of their political predominance by a Christian power, their religion continues to expand. They are no longer, however, the sanguinary zealots, who, eight hundred years ago, in the name of God and the prophet, spread desolation and slaughter among the unconverted Pagans. Open violence produced little effect on so patient a people, and although the Mahommedans subsequently lived for centuries intermixed with Hindoos, no radical change was produced in the manners or tenets of the latter. On the contrary, for almost a century past, the Mahommedans have evinced much deference to the prejudices of their Hindoo neighbours, and a strong predilection towards many of their ceremonies. The higher ranks of Mahommedans in general abstain from making offerings to the gods of the Pagans; but the multitude in their distresses have recourse to the idols, and even make offerings on many holidays; whereas it is the higher ranks of Hindoos who are chiefly addicted to the propitiation of Mahommedan saints.

The next religious sect of sufficient importance to deserve notice is the Christian, which probably throughout Hindostan comprehends about half a million of souls, almost all the descendants of the ancient Christian stocks, and

relatively to the other classes existing under circumstances of degradation. The pride of caste among the Hindoos does not singly account for the contempt felt and shewn by the followers of the Brahminical system towards them, no such contempt being manifested to the Mahommedans or to the European Christians. There are undoubtedly circumstances of diet and cleanliness which tend to lower the Nazarene in the eyes both of the Mahommedan and Hindoo; and the European holding himself aloof from the native Christian, no portion of the veneration which the first attracts, is reflected on his humble brother in religion. Were it practicable to raise the inferior part of the chain without lowering the upper, the Christian might, like the Mahommedan, become a tribe holding a respectable station in the mixed society of India, and until some such improvement is effected the temporal causes that oppose the conversion of the Hindoos will continue to operate. Conviction does not easily reach the mind of an individual, who, by becoming a proselyte, must descend from a decent rank in society to one degraded and discountenanced, whereas were he encouraged not merely by the number but also by the reflective lustre of those, who, although of a different origin and complexion, unite with him in faith, he would soon have numerous associates.

With a view to the creation of so important a link in the chain, combined with other reasons, a gradual extension of the colonizing system has been recommended by Mr. Colebrooke. Considered as a measure of policy, a Christian population, holding a decent rank in the motley throng of tribes and castes, would tend to consolidate the strength of the state, and add to the probable duration of the empire. A colonization of the nature alluded to, far from being likely to terminate in the separation of the colony, would rather serve to perpetuate the union by the addition of a tribe whose interest and doctrines must attach them to their European superiors. With habits more analogous to those of Europe, the Creole Christians would certainly be better customers for its productions than the other sects. For the furtherance of such an object all that is necessary is, to allow the natural course of events to take effect, without either encouragement or restraint, and to permit Europeans and their legitimate progeny to settle in India and acquire landed property. At present it is only the illegitimate offspring that is privileged, while the legitimate descendant is prohibited from obtaining a property in the soil of his birth. A gradual increase of the illegitimate race in fact constitutes a progressive colonization, but it proceeds less rapidly than might have been expected, being absorbed into the classes immediately above and below it. On the one side by the intermarriages of the females with European sojourners, and on the other it melts into the dark native Christian. Colonization in the usual sense of the term is never likely to

take place in Hindostan, as no inducement exists to attract the common labourer or artizan. The voluntary resort would be confined to merchants, traders, and factors; to navigators and seamen of a superior class; to master planters and overseers of plantations; and to the civil and military servants of the government: but the influx of emigrants would never be in such numbers as to interfere with the ordinary employments of the native population. In process of time, however, when ages have passed away, should the increase of a Christian Creole population terminate in a separation, which is, however, more likely to happen from other causes, the event when it arrives will be advantageous to both parties, and its approaching maturity ought to be hailed as a common benefit.

The historical notices procurable in India are usually either mere traditions preserved among ignorant people, or legends mixed with the most monstrous fables, for it may be safely asserted that the Hindoos have nothing deserving of being dignified with the name of history, or which could with propriety be denominated a chronicle. The wars between the princes considered as incarnations of Vishnu, and the asuras or demons, such as Rawan, have reference no doubt to a period when the worship of certain gods was in recent vigour, and the sectaries of each were contending for superiority. There is also reason to believe that the Yavans, so often mentioned, were the Macedonians of Bactria, who obtained large possessions in the north-western quarter, where, about the time of the Mahommedan invasion, the family of Palas claimed universal dominion. The dynasties of princes named after the sun and moon seem to have governed Hindostan from the earliest times, and each branched out into numerous lines that shared the country between them, while sometimes the one and sometimes the other proved most potent, and furnished the prince who was considered the paramount lord of India. The power possessed by these sovereigns appears to have consisted of three privileges. Each prince sent him annually an embassy with presents; he bestowed the tica or mark of investiture on each heir when he succeeded to the throne; and he had a right to interfere to prevent the stronger of his nominal vassals from completely subjugating the weaker. The prerogative last mentioned was probably limited to persuasion, as he possessed no means of enforcing a co-operation among them. For the chronology of Hindostan since the Mahommedan invasion, the reader is referred to the words Ghizni and Delhi; that of each province, district, and city, is given as they respectively occur.

For above a century past the native governments of Hindostan have been in a perpetual state of fluctuation. So far from having any political system, the effect of which is to afford protection to their weaker neighbours, exactly the

reverse is the case, the object of every native state separately, and of all collectively, being to destroy the weak. Internally the constitution is an unmixed despotism, every movement originating with the government, to the power of which there is no limit except the endurance of the people, the sovereign's will being never opposed but by a general insurrection. The consequence is, that the great bulk of the population entertain no attachment to any set of political principles, or to any form of government, and they have been so long accustomed to revolutions and frequent changes of sovereigns, that they obey with little repugnance whoever is placed over them, expecting his sway, like that of his predecessor, to be transitory. They are solicitous for the toleration of their religious doctrines, rites, and prejudices, the security of their domestic concerns, and the prosperity of their particular villages; but are totally destitute of what in Europe is understood by the term patriotism. Indeed the system of village government throughout India, presents the only instance of permanent territorial cohesion counteracting the evils incident to despotism, and serves to account for the flourishing condition of many tracts of country from which all government whatever appears to be withdrawn.

Under such circumstances it is not surprising that the natives do not look upon the crime of treason against the state in the light that we do. In fidelity and attachment to a master or chief they are not surpassed by any people; but those who stand in the relation of subjects, without being in the service or pay of the supreme power, do not feel themselves bound by any very strong tie of allegiance. They have no idea of loyalty or disloyalty but to the masters who support them, and their ideas run equally counter to all European notions of civil liberty. In adverting to the incessant revolutions of these countries, it is a remarkable fact, that in all the schemes of polity, whether of the victors or the vanquished, the idea of civil liberty in any shape never seems to have been contemplated, and is to this day without a name in the languages of India. The Seiks when they rejected the Brahminical religion, exhibited the first and only instance of an approach, however imperfect, to republican principles. In reality our native subjects have always been as remarkable for their cheerful submission to power, as for a want of moderation, an unsteady disposition, and spirit of encroachment and litigation when suffered to indulge these evil propensities. No country in the world can exhibit so cheerful and apparently happy a class of people as the native sepoys in the British service, which disposition, with the many other good qualities they are known to possess, may in a considerable degree be attributed to the salutary discipline and subordination they are subjected to.

In Hindostan there are no titles of nobility exactly similar to those of Europe,

nor are they in general hereditary. According to Oriental ideas, honours or titles conferred by the sovereign must be accompanied by a jaghire, and generally by a military command along with the title, which is in itself considered merely as an appellation attached to the acquisition of emolument or power, and it is quite impossible to impress the minds of the natives with the value of a mere name. On this subject their ideas are more simple and natural than ours. If an unfit person receive a patent for the title of Ameer or Raja, he would not be able to retain it, for when a man has nothing left of dignity but the name, in India it soon fades away. On the other hand, if a Hindoo should emerge from poverty and obscurity, and attain great wealth and celebrity, he would, if he wished it, be saluted Raja. He would be considered as having acquired a claim to the title, in the same manner as other persons acquire, by learning, the appellation Moulavy and Pundit, which becomes among the mass of the people inseparably attached to their names. Elevation of rank and increase of opulence among the natives of India produces a greater accession of dependants, particularly in the female branch of the family, than in any other country, and according to their prejudices few of these dependants can be dismissed without incurring indelible disgrace.

In modern times the British government, since the establishment of its predominance, being anxious to raise up an intermediate body of respectable gentry, has made vast sacrifices of the revenue to the zemindars, with the view of elevating them to the rank of European landlords; but the experiment has totally failed, scarcely any of those whose incomes admit of their supporting a becoming splendour having shewn any desire to shake off their original habits, while the unceasing division and subdivision of estates peculiar to the Hindoo law of inheritance, threatens to reduce the whole in the course of a few generations to the condition of labouring cultivators. The next step towards improvement would be, to give the towns and market places a privileged municipal government, the want of which in all eastern monarchies has greatly retarded the advances of civilization. This and every other measure of the like nature ought to be conceded slowly and gradually, for the experience of the world has shewn how vain and delusive are all sudden attempts to reform and improve the social condition by the mere force of legislative enactments. Such a line of cautious policy is more especially requisite in India, where the people are more under the trammels of prejudice than any other, their laws and usages being identified with their religion, which pervades every action of their lives. In laying the foundation therefore of order and improvement, the genius of the people must be consulted, and the greatest respect paid both to their inoffensive and hurtful prejudices. It is to the actual condition and exigencies of every society that its

legislature must conform itself, and when a new evil arises it must be met by a corresponding remedy.

In Hindostan land is the chief source of revenue, for very little else contributes to the supply of the Indian ways and means, and it is not practicable here, as in Europe, to impose other taxes to correct the inequalities of that on land. In the country first mentioned, the terms rent and revenue may be considered as nearly synonimous, and the distinction of payers and consumers as affording a tolerably accurate classification of the great mass of the people. The circumstances in which the British Government is placed, precludes all improvident generosity, and the peculiar habits of the people require that their natural tendency to inaction should be stimulated by the necessity of providing for the payment of a moderately high land assessment. An incitement of this description is more particularly called for in a country where the mere necessaries of life are easily procured, and where, in most parts, during the prevailing anarchy of more than a century, to acquire property by individual exertions was only to tempt the hand of rapacity. For an abstract of the total revenue realized by the British Government in Hindostan, the reader is referred to the article Bengal, and for the details to each district and territorial subdivision respectively. The abilities and indefatigable exertions by which the fiscal arrangements of India have been brought to their present improved condition, have never been duly appreciated in Europe. Much remains still to be done, but even in their present imperfect form, their regularity presents a singular contrast to the system of shifts, evasions, and extortions, which, in modern times, seems so congenial to the obliquity of a native financier. The same observations are applicable to the existing system of internal police; which, notwithstanding its numerous imperfections (which it is far easier to describe than to remedy), has greatly ameliorated the condition of the natives, who are highly sensible of the protection their persons and property now experience, and acknowledge that the administration of civil and criminal justice has been improved, inasmuch as form and consistency have been substituted for discretionary authority. On the other hand, it must be admitted, that, under the new regime, the condition of some classes, and more especially the military, has materially retrograded, the productive income having, by the course of events, been almost wholly transferred to the purely agricultural and trading portions of the community.

The formation of the enormous empire now possessed by the British government in India has been urged on by circumstances so uncontroulable, has been so fervently deprecated by the ruling authorities both at home and abroad, and so peremptorily interdicted by the strongest legislative enactments, that its ac-

quisition under such circumstances almost appears like a dispensation of Providence. Of the truth of this, an adequate judgment can only be formed by those who have examined the voluminous documents that have fallen under the Author's notice, and observed the incredible pains taken by the different governments of India since 1784, not only to avoid every war of aggression, but also to resist the importunity of the different native chiefs and communities to be admitted within the pale of its protection as subjects or tributaries. There may have been cases, although it would be difficult to indicate them, where the prospect of gaining a political ascendancy, or too hasty apprehension of meditated attack, have misled the government into hostilities which might have been avoided, but the general history of the British empire in India is, that it has been wantonly assailed, the unprovoked enemy has been conquered, and the possessions wrested from him retained, not merely as a legitimate compensation, but also on the consideration of self defence. The following concise abstract of the British territorial possessions, with the dates of their acquisition, will furnish a general notion of their progressive increase:—

A. D.

1639 Madras, with a territory five miles along shore, and one inland.
1664 Bombay.
1691 Fort St. David.
1696 Calcutta.
1750 } The Jaghire.
1763 }
1757 The 24 Pergunnahs.
1761 Chittagong, Burdwan, and Midnapoor.
1765 Bengal, Bahar, and four of the Northern Circars.
1776 The Island of Salsette.
1781 The Zemindary of Benares.
1787 The Guntoor Circar.
1799 Seringapatam.
1800 The Balaghaut Ceded Districts of Bellary and Cuddapah.
1801 Territories ceded by the Nabob of Oude, consisting of Rohilcund, Bareily, Moradabad, the Lower Doab, and the districts of Furruckabad, Allahabad, Caunpoor, Goruckpoor, Azimghur, &c.
1801 The Carnatic province, comprehending the whole of the Nabob of Arcot's territories.
1803 Delhi, Agra, the Upper Doab, Hurrianna, Saharunpoor, Merut, Alighur, Etawah, Bundelcund, Cuttack, Balesore, Juggernauth, &c.
1803 Cessions from the Peshwa and Guicowar, in Gujerat.

A. D.

1815 Conquests from Nepaul, consisting of the hilly country between the Sutuleje and Jumna, and the districts of Gurwal and Kumaon.

1816 Anjar, Mandavie, and other places in Cutch.

1818 The whole of the Peshwa's dominions, Khandesh; Saugur, and other places in Malwah; Ajmeer, in Rajpootana; Sumbhulpoor, Sirgoojah, Gurrah, Mundlah, and other cessions in Gundwana, from the Nagpoor Raja.

In A. D. 1814, the existing political system of Hindostan consisted of states subsidiary, federative, and independent, viz.

1st. Those with whom the British government had formed subsidiary alliances, such as the Nizam, the Peshwa, the Guicowar, the Rajas of Mysore, Travancore, Cochin, and the Nabob of Oude. The conditions of these subsidiary alliances were, that the British government should protect the native state from external invasion and internal dissension, but the troops assigned were not to be employed in the civil administration or collection of the revenue. In return for the protection thus granted, the British government received a compensation in money or territory, and the subsidizing state not only undertook to maintain a certain contingent in readiness to act with the subsidiary force, but also engaged to abstain from all political intercourse with the other powers of India, except in concert with the paramount authority, which undertook to arbitrate their disputed rights. In cases of exigence, the entire resources of the protected state to be at the command, and under the direction of the British government.

2d. Certain small principalities, scarcely deserving the name of substantive powers, which enjoyed the British protection without any subsidiary connexion. The principal members of this class were the Rajas of Bhurtpoor and Macherry, with some other petty chiefs in the neighbourhood of Agra and Delhi, the Bundelcund chiefs, and the petty Seik chieftains on the frontier towards the Sutuleje. The Rajpoot chiefs of Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Odeypoor, Bicanere, and Jesselmere were not included. The engagements for the protection of these petty principalities were nearly the same as those entered into with the greater states, except that the British government seldom exacted any consideration for its protection, and was not bound to maintain any special force for that purpose.

3d. The third class consisted of acknowledged princes, such as Sindia, Holcar, and the Nagpoor Raja, with whom the British nation was at peace, and had a permanent ambassador (an arrangement considered by native prejudices as the first step towards subjugation) stationed at their court.

4th. As a fourth class may be mentioned, the independent chieftains and communities who had never been acknowledged as substantive powers, and towards whom the British government was not bound by any connexion whatever. The two classes last mentioned had always shewn a great reluctance to form any indissoluble alliances, on terms that seemed calculated to interfere with the unrestrained latitude of political action they had before enjoyed.

Since the date above specified (1814) great political changes have taken place, the Maharatta power having been irretrievably broken by the war of 1817-18, and the Nepaulese by that of 1815. The Peshwa, as a sovereign, has been annihilated, and his possessions, with the exception of Satarah, incorporated with the British dominions; the Nagpoor Raja reduced to a state of complete insignificance, and Holcar deprived of all his dominions south of the Nerbudda. Sindia, from circumstances for which he can claim no merit, presents no exhibition of shattered fortune, but he now stands insulated and precluded from all extraneous assistance, not to mention the essential prostration his strength has sustained by the extinction of the Pindaries. In reality, his future existence solely depends on his maintaining his present amicable relations towards the British government. On the other hand, several friendly states, such as those of Boondee, Kotah, and Bopaul, have had their territories augmented, and the five great states of Rajpootana have been admitted into the federative alliance. Under such circumstances it is extremely desirable that the supreme power maintain without relaxation that controul over the correspondence and intercourse of its allies and dependants with foreign princes, which it is entitled to exercise by treaty, and which is indispensable to its political ascendancy. On all occasions, therefore, when they are desirous of making any communication to princes considered foreign by the British government, the dispatches ought to be delivered to the Resident at their court, by whom they would be conveyed to their destination through the established official channels.

The following Table is an attempt to present an abstract view of the relative area and population of the whole as they now exist; but the calculation must only be regarded as an approximation to the truth, the imperfection of the statistical documents precluding all idea of strict accuracy.

TABLE

OF THE RELATIVE AREA AND POPULATION OF THE MODERN STATES OF HINDOSTAN FOR A. D. 1820.

	British square miles.	Population.
Bengal, Bahar, and Benares	162,000	39,000,000
Additions in Hindostan since A. D. 1765	148,000	18,000,000
Gurwal, Kumaon, and the tract between the Sutuleje and Jumna.	18,000	500,000
Under the Bengal Presidency	328,000	57,500,000
Under the Madras Presidency	154,000	15,000,000
Under the Bombay Presidency	11,000	2,500,000
Territories in the Deccan, &c. acquired since 1815, and not yet attached to any Presidency	60,000	8,000,000
Total under the British Government	553,000	83,000,000
British Allies and Tributaries.		
The Nizam	96,000	10,000,000
The Nagpoor Raja	70,000	3,000,000
The King of Oude	20,000	3,000,000
The Guicowar	18,000	2,000,000
Kotah 6,500, Boondee 2,500, Bopaul 5,000	14,000	1,500,000
The Mysore Raja	27,000	3,000,000
The Satarah Raja	14,000	1,500,000
Travancore 6,000, Cochin 2,000	8,000	1,000,000
Under the Rajas of Joudpoor, Jeypoor, Odeypoor, Bicanere, Jesselmere, and other Rajpoot chiefs; Holcar, Ameer Khan, the Row of Cutch, and innumerable other petty native chiefs; Seiks, Gonds, Bheels, Coolies, and Catties, all comprehended within the line of British protection	283,000	15,000,000
Total British and their allies	1,103,000	123,000,000
Independent States.		
The Nepaul Raja	53,000	2,000,000
The Lahore Raja (Runjeet Singh)	50,000	3,000,000
The Ameers of Sinde	24,000	1,000,000
The Dominions of Sindia	40,000	4,000,000
The Cabul Sovereign	10,000	1,000,000
Grand total of Hindostan	1,280,000	134,000,000

Most of the chief towns of Hindostan are now comprehended within the British dominions, but scarcely any detailed reports of their population have ever been published. The following estimate is composed from a variety of documents, but must be, like the preceding table, considered only as an approximation to the reality. Those marked thus (*) belong to native powers.

	Number of inhabitants.		Number of inhabitants.
Benares	600,000	Ahmedabad	100,000
Calcutta	500,000	* Cashmere	100,000
Surat	450,000	Furruckabad	70,000
Patna	312,000	Mirzapoor	60,000
Madras	300,000	Agra	60,000
* Lucknow	200,000	Bareily	60,000
* Hyderabad	200,000	Burdwan	54,000
Dacca	180,000	Bangalore	50,000
Bombay	170,000	Chuprah	43,000
Delhi	150,000	Seringapatam	40,000
Moorshedabad	150,000	Broach	33,000
Poona	120,000	Mangalore	30,000
* Nagpoor	100,000	* Palhanpoor	30,000
* Baroda	100,000		

There are many other towns such as Amritsir, Lahore, Jeypoor, Bhurtpoor, Gualior, Juggernauth, Aurungabad, &c. of considerable size and population, but the particulars have never been ascertained. In 1805, according to official returns transmitted, the total number of British born subjects in Hindostan was 31,000. Of these 22,000 were in the army as officers and privates; the civil officers of government of all descriptions were about 2000; the free merchants and mariners, who resided in India under covenant, were about 5000; the officers and practitioners in the courts of justice 300; the remaining 1700 consisted of adventurers who had smuggled themselves out in various capacities. Since the date above mentioned no detailed reports have been published; but there is reason to believe that even now the total number of British born subjects in Hindostan of all descriptions is considerably under 40,000, the removal of the restrictions on the commercial intercourse having, contrary to expectation, added very few to the previous number. Compared with the West Indies and other tropical regions, Hindostan may be considered a very healthy country, being little afflicted with many distempers that are destructive in Europe; but on the other hand it has maladies from which Europe is exempted. Cancer is nearly unknown within the tropics, and phthisis pulmonalis is not common. Scrophula is rare, although instances occur from particular causes, and the formation of

the stone in the bladder is but very seldom experienced. Although the climate does not altogether prevent the attacks of the gout, yet they are certainly less common and severe than in cold countries. Acute rheumatism is rare between the tropics, and the chronic kind is more easily cured than in Europe. Contagious distempers, such as the yellow fever and plague, are altogether unknown, which is a fortunate circumstance for the crowded population of the Company's old provinces. Within the last five years a new and very fatal disease has visited at different periods every portion of Hindostan, and swept off great numbers of the natives, but its virulence has latterly very much abated, as it originally commenced, without any assignable cause, either from improvement of climate, diet, habits, or mode of treatment.

The army required for the protection of these extensive provinces, and for the retaining them under due subordination, although it presents a formidable grand total, probably does not amount to one-fifth of the number maintained by the Mogul sovereigns and their functionaries, when that empire was in its zenith; yet even under the ablest of the emperors, commotions in some quarter of their ill-subdued territories were unceasing. The British system in India has always been to keep the troops in a constant state of preparation for war, but never to enter into unprovoked hostilities, or engage in any contests except those rendered necessary by the principle of self-defence. Indeed for many years past the magnitude of its acquisitions has been such as to furnish sufficient occupation for its exertions in coercing its numerous subjects of all descriptions and religions, and improving their internal condition. The following return of the military forces, regular and irregular, serving in India, was laid before parliament on the 22d of March, 1819:

Regulars.—King's troops.	Cavalry	4,692
	Infantry	17,858
	Total King's	22,550
East India Company's	European artillery	4,583
	European infantry	3,120
	Total Company's Europeans	7,703
	Native cavalry	11,011
	Native infantry	132,815
	Native artillery including gun Lascars attached to the European artillery	8,759
		152,585
	Total regulars	182,838

Irregulars	Native cavalry	7,659
	Native infantry	17,082
	Total irregulars	24,741
	Invalids and pensioners . .	5,875
	Grand total	213,454

The British armies actually in the field during the campaign of 1818, amounted to 95,000 men of singular efficiency, and if to each fighting man 4½ followers be added, the sum total will give an aggregate of above half a million of souls.

The total revenue of every description, accruing to the British government in Hindostan, in 1817-18,

Was estimated at	156,871,060	sicca rupees.
Add acquisitions in A. D. 1818	14,358,953	
	171,230,000	or £19,862,680

In 1818, the aggregate debt of the three Presidencies amounted to 34 millions sterling, and no great reduction of that, or any other national debt, is ever likely to take place, the expenditure always keeping pace with the increase of revenue. Indeed, were it practicable, it is not desirable, as the amount is not so enormous as to press on the industry of the country, and its influence forms a bond of connexion between the monied class of natives and the British government, which now pervades every corner of Hindostan. Its further augmentation, however, ought to be most strenuously resisted.

For many years after the commencement of the British empire in India, the unavoidable necessity of extending its conquests was one of the great disadvantages attached to its dominion, for the wider they spread the more assailable did they become. In more recent times a process exactly the reverse has taken place, and the augmentation of territory by approaching the natural barriers of Hindostan, in place of increasing the defensive line of frontier has actually diminished it. Between Calcutta and the Indus there is now no hostile boundary, nothing but states bound together by a sense of common interest, or a comparatively small proportion of ill-disposed population rendered incapable of rearing a hostile standard. But when the multiplication of points of defence is urged, the decreased means of annoyance ought also to be taken into consideration, and its new situation has not brought the British government into contact with any state that has the power to give much trouble. All within the Indus is consolidated under one confederation, of which the British government is the head, while the Indus and its Desert present a barrier against common means of aggression;—against mighty invasions in the course of ages no state whatever can be wholly secure. One certain benefit has already re-

sulted to the British dominions from the new order of things, which is, immunity from the ravages of a banditti generated and organized within the limits of Hindostan, against the recurrence of which it could never be secure while an asylum remained where the depredators could muster and refresh. Henceforward, therefore, if dangers arise to Hindostan, they will be internal, and greatly attributable to the negligence of the local governments.

In direct and authoritative controul, the dominion of the British government extends much farther than that possessed by any prior dynasty, whether Patan or Mogul, yet the latter, so long as they abstained from persecution, had nothing to apprehend from the religion of the Hindoos, and history proves that the commotions which agitated the Mahommedan monarchies chiefly arose from their own internal dissensions, and national disputes. Neither does it appear that any prior conqueror ever employed disciplined corps of their own countrymen in the defence of their own sovereignty, although they had to contend with one very numerous tribe, the Hindoo; while the British, more advantageously situated, have two to put in motion against each other, and in process of time may raise up a third. Each foreign invader certainly favoured his own countrymen, but it was by bestowing on them places and high appointments, which excited envy without essentially strengthening his domination. Besides, therefore, total abstinence from persecution, the British government in a powerful corps, entirely European, and totally distinguished from the natives by colour, language and manners, possesses a solidity and consistence much beyond any of the prior Mahommedan dynasties.

The dominion exercised by the British nation, notwithstanding certain imperfections, has, on the whole, most undoubtedly been beneficial to the great mass of the native population; although the peculiar circumstances in which it is placed precludes the higher classes from any participation in the superior functions of the state. Indeed, the natives of India, accustomed either to absolute command or implicit obedience, have not been practically found to make a beneficial use of delegated authority. Strictly speaking, however, those whom the British have superseded were themselves strangers, and attention to dates in the perusal of the following pages will shew by how very short a tenure most of their possessions were held. The strength of the existing government has had the effect of securing its subjects as well from foreign depredation as from internal commotion, advantages rarely experienced by the subjects of Asiatic states, which, combined with a domestic administration more just in its principles, and executed with far greater integrity than the native one that preceded it, sufficiently account for the improvements that have taken place. On the other hand, were the territories so unexpectedly acquired to be restored to

the natives, we should only transfer them from a state of the profoundest internal peace to sanguinary distractions, to profligate adventurers, and most probably to some rival European power. We cannot now, therefore, from a principle of justice and mercy, renounce the many millions we have so long and so effectually protected, and with all our superior advantages there is no reason to apprehend that the duration of the British empire shall not at the least equal that of the Moguls. In fact, if India be hereafter lost to Britain, it will be owing to circumstances wholly extraneous to the system of government hitherto pursued, or to some dereliction from the energy of that system. Time is certainly wanting for the present race to forget their past habits, and to acquire information on practical points, in which they are most deficient, for owing to the long subsisting anarchy in Hindostan, all the relations of the community have become confused. On the British government will devolve the task of inculcating the principles of mild and equitable rule, distinct notions of social observances, and a just sense of moral obligations, the progressive result of which must inevitably be the adoption of a purer and more sublime system of religion.—*(Colebrooke, Sir William Jones, F. Buchanan, Sir Henry Strachey, Prinsep, the Marquis of Hastings, Erskine, C. Grant, Rennell, 5th Report, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

HINDOSTAN.

THE PROVINCE OF BENGAL.

CHAPTER I.

GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, DIMENSIONS, SQUARE CONTENTS, TERRITORIAL SUBDIVISIONS, SURFACE OF THE COUNTRY, RIVERS, GANGES AND BRAHMAPUTRA, PERIODICAL WINDS, SEASONS, CLIMATE, BAROMETER, AND THERMOMETER.

THIS large province is situated towards the eastern extremity of Hindostan, between the 21st and 27th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of Nepaul, the Sikkim Raja, and Bootan: to the south by the Bay of Bengal; on the east it has Assam and the Ava, or Birman territories; and on the west the province of Bahar. In length (including Midnapoor), it may be estimated at 350 miles, by 300 miles the average breadth. The following is its geographical description by Abul Fazel in 1582.

"The Soubah of Bengal is situated in the second climate. From Chittagong to Kurkee is 400 coss, difference of longitude; and from the northern range of mountains to the southern extremity of Circar Madaroon (Birboom), comprehends 200 coss of latitude. When Orissa was added to Bengal, the additional length was computed to be 43 coss, and the breadth 20 coss. Bengal was originally called Bung. The Soubah of Bengal consists of 24 circars, and 787 mahals. The revenue is 14,961,482, and the Zemindars (who are mostly koits) furnish 23,330 cavalry, 801,158 infantry, 170 elephants, 4,260 cannon, and 4,400 boats."

In 1582, when Abul Fazel compiled the institutes of Acber, the government extended to Cuttack, and along the Mahanuddy River, Orissa not being then

formed into a distinct Soubah, which appears from the arrangement of the 24 Circars, extracted from the same work.

"1. Oudumbher, or Tandeh; 2. Jennetabad; 3. Futtehabad; 4. Mahmoodabad; 5. Khalifetabad; 6. Bokla; 7. Purneah; 8. Tanjepoor; 9. Ghoraghaut; 10. Pinjerah; 11. Barbuckabad; 12. Bazooha; 13. Soonergong; 14. Silhet; 15. Chatgong; 16. Shereefabad; 17. Solimabad; 18. Satgong; 19. Madarun; 20. Jellasir; 21. Buddruck; 22. Cuttek; 23. Kullangdunpaut; 24. Raje Mahindra. The five last are in Orissa."

The geographical position of Bengal is singularly happy with respect to security from the attacks of foreign enemies. Along the whole northern frontier from Assam, westward, there runs a belt of low land from 10 to 20 miles in breadth, covered with the most exuberant vegetation, particularly a rank weed, named in Bengal the augeah grass, which sometimes grows to the height of 30 feet, and is as thick as a man's wrist, and mixed with these are tall forest trees. Beyond this belt rise the lofty mountains of northern Hindostan, the population of which is thinly scattered, and was formerly esteemed unwarlike, which opinion the recent war with the Nepaulese has tended considerably to modify.

On the south of Bengal is a sea coast guarded by shallows and impenetrable woods, with only one port, and that of extremely difficult access. It is only on the west that any enemy is to be apprehended, and there the natural barrier is strong, and the adjacent countries sterile and thinly peopled. The river Ganges intersects Bengal in a south easterly direction, and separates it into two territorial divisions nearly equal in extent: in case of invasion the tract to the east of that river would be exempt from the ravages of war, and present an asylum to the inhabitants, especially against armies of cavalry. The north-west is the most assailable quarter, but possesses many strong points of defence.

The area of Bengal and Bahar is 149,217 square miles, and with Benares not less than 162,000 square miles. The following proportions of this surface are grounded on many surveys after making allowance for large rivers:

Rivers and lakes (one-eighth)	3 Parts.
Deemed irreclaimable and barren (one-sixth)	4
Site of towns and villages, highways, ponds, &c. (one twenty-fourth)	1
Free lands (three twenty-fourths)	3
Remaining liable for revenue	
In tillage (three eighths)	9
Waste (one-sixth)	4
	24

The following calculation by the late Mr. Crisp gives another result.

According to a general estimate of Major Rennell's, the whole of Bengal contains 97,244 square miles. If from this we deduct that portion of Tiperah which is independent, the woods called the Sunderbunds, and other wastes, 13,244 square miles, the remaining inhabited country will be equal to 84,000; but the extent of waste, and surface occupied by rivers, &c. seems here greatly underrated.

Prior to the cessions made by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, the country immediately subordinate to the presidency of Calcutta, or as it is termed in the official records, Fort William, comprehended the entire soubahs of Bengal and Bahar, with the districts of Benares (in Allahabad) and Midnapoor (in Orissa), besides some tracts of country which had maintained their independence even in the most flourishing periods of the Mogul empire. The latter consisting of the Morung, Cooch Behar, and some other sections of territory which have become tributary since the English acquired their present influence in Bengal. For many years after the conquest, the revenue being collected, and justice administered, through the medium of native agents, the original Mahommedan fiscal divisions into large Zemindaries, were allowed to continue unaltered; but subsequently, when it was determined to introduce an improved system of police and jurisprudence, the province was subdivided into the following 17 districts, each of which will be found described hereafter, viz.

Backergunge,	Jessore,	Purneah,	Tiperah,
Birboom,	Mymansingh,	Rajshahy,	24 Pergunnahs,
Burdwan,	Moorshedabad,	Rungpoor,	Midnapoor,
Chittagong,	Nuddea,	Silhet,	The Jungle Mahals.
Hooghly,			

The first aspect of this country suggests for it the designation of a flat champaign country. The elevated tracts it contains are only an exception to the general uniformity, and the inundation which annually takes place in the regions watered by the Ganges, seems the consequence of a general descent, and does not any further invalidate the notion of a general level. The fact of annual inundation was anciently called Beng, whence probably the name Bengal was derived; the upper parts of Bengal, which are not liable to inundation, were called Barendra.

Rice, which is luxuriant in the tract of inundation, thrives in all the southern districts; but in the ascent of the Ganges, it is observed gradually to yield the first place in husbandry to wheat and barley. The mulberry, acclimated in the middle districts of Bengal, shews a better defined limit where it meets the poppy, which is peculiar to the northern and western provinces. In the opinion

of the Hindoos, the resort of the antelope sanctifies the country graced by his presence, an opinion more connected with physical observation than with popular prejudice. The wide and open range in which the antelope delights, is equally denied by the forests of the mountain and the inundation of the fen.

Throughout this whole province, there are no hills to be found of any considerable elevation, and but for the extreme flatness of the southern quarters, would more deserve the name of inequalities of surface than hills. These rising grounds are situated mostly in the districts of Birboom, Silhet, Chittagong, and the eastern boundaries of Tiperah, and cover but a very small space of the whole area.

Bengal from its western boundary to the sea, is watered by the Ganges, and is intersected in every direction by many navigable streams, which fall into that river, and which will be found described along with the districts through which they principally flow. There is no district wholly destitute of internal navigation during the rains; and even during the driest season, there is scarcely any part 20 miles distant from a navigable river. In most of them lakes, rivulets, and watercourses, communicating with great rivers, conduct boats to the peasant's door; but his valuable produce being reaped at other seasons, and from necessity disposed of as soon as gathered, he derives less benefit from the inland water communication, than the survey of its extent would lead us to suppose. Land carriage conveys the great part of produce from the place of its growth to that of its embarkation on the Ganges.

In a country so level as Bengal, and where a great proportion of the soil consists of loose materials, upon which running water has a powerful action, the rivers are not only gradually and constantly changing their places, by wearing away different portions of their banks, but very often a small obstacle placed in one of their channels, forces the water to form another, and as that by degrees becomes wider, the first is left empty in the dry season, or ceasing to have a current forms a stagnant marsh. This old bed usually retains its original name among the neighbouring dwellers, who continue to perform their religious ceremonies in the same places that their ancestors did. This has been a source of infinite trouble to European geographers, who endeavouring to trace a great river from where it joins the sea to its remote source, by its principal channel, are surprised to find that it loses its name altogether, or, that another river, after having for some part lost its original name, if traced further is found again to resume it.

Another circumstance also tends to perplex European geographers, which is, when in tracing a river they find, that an inconsiderable stream falling into the main channel changes its name, and that the source of the smaller stream

is obstinately considered by the natives as being the source of the river, having either been the first to which they had access, or having at one period been the largest.

These changes in the courses of rivers are evidently attended with considerable loss, the new channel being so much land lost, while the old one exists as a lake or marsh. The vicinity of the new course is deluged, owing to the smallness of the channel, and the banks of the old lose their fertility, and the means of transporting their produce to market. Towns must consequently disappear, and the uncertainty of their place of abode seems one of the reasons, which prevent the inhabitants of Bengal from building more substantial and comfortable houses. The forming of new cuts therefore for the purposes of commerce, seems on this account hazardous, and, except near the sea, should be generally avoided. Sudden changes, however, cannot be altogether prevented, yet one great cause of their commencement, the trees that fall into the river, might be removed, and to render this effectual, the proprietor should be compelled to remove all trees growing within 20 feet of a mouldering bank.

The gradual changes that are constantly taking place in the Bengal rivers, are attended with much inconvenience to the landholders; one person's property being carried away, and that of another enlarged, while the land tax on both continues the same. It results from this, that the first becomes unable to liquidate his arrears to government, while the other being suddenly enriched, acquires habits of expense, which on the next aberration of the river he is unable to relinquish. No buildings intended for duration are raised on so unstable a foundation, so that the wealthy so situated, have little comfort in their dwellings, and the country is destitute of ornament. With regard to those of the poorer classes, a village in Bengal is removed 4 or 5 miles with very little inconvenience, such a change of place being considered as an ordinary casualty, frequently occasioned by an unseasonable shower. These migrations affect the inhabitants but very little, for even in common there are not many houses that last three years; partly owing to the slightness of the materials, and partly to the frequency of fires.

The principal rivers of Bengal are the

Ganges,	Teesta,	Cosi,
Brahmaputra,	Kooram,	Conki,
Roopnarrain,	Korotoya,	Manas.
Dummooda,	Manas,	

But the two first, from their magnitude and importance in the estimation of the natives, are entitled to more detailed descriptions than the smaller streams, which will, however, be noticed respectively in the course of the work, when

the districts through which they flow come under examination. There are no lakes in Bengal resembling those of Scotland or Canada, but there are a profusion of extensive jeels, which may be either denominated shallow lakes, or deep morasses. A great proportion of these in the driest part of the season contain little water, but during the rains present immense sheets over which boats of the greatest burthen may be navigated, and some jeels are navigable to a certain extent during the whole year. There is reason to believe, that nearly all these stagnant sheets of water, rest, in what were at a remote period the channels of large rivers, which have since altered their courses, and now flow in another direction.

In 1815 the total sum authorized by the Bengal government to be expended for the repairs of embankments was 247,457 rupees, and the districts in which it was principally disbursed were the following, abstracting from the sums the fractional parts; viz.

Burdwan -	46,000 rupees.	Hidjellee -	27,000 rupees.
Moorshedabad	26,000	Tumlook -	30,000
Midnapoor -	30,000	24 Pergunnahs	11,000
Cuttack -	24,000	Allahabad -	3,000
Jessore -	18,000	Tirhoot -	3,000
Rajshahy -	27,000		

THE GANGES.

Prior to the commencement of the 19th century the Ganges had been traced by Hindoo pilgrims from Hindostan into the snowy mountains, which run in a direction north-west to south-east, on the frontiers of India: and, on the side of Tibet, had been approached by Lama surveyors, whose route terminated at Kentaisse, a range of snowy mountains on the west and south of Tibet. The intervening space was a region of conjecture and romance; whether a vast tract of Alpine country interposed, or simply a ridge of lofty mountains, clothed in eternal snow, which last proposition seemed the most probable.

Until 1807 all the maps represented the river as flowing within the Himalaya chain of snowy mountains, many hundred miles, from an imaginary lake named Mapama to Gangoutri. This course appeared to Mr. Colebrooke, and to the late Lieut. Col. Colebrooke, to rest on very slender foundations. They thought it very improbable that a stream less than the Alacananda, as the Bhagirathi was represented to be, should have its source so much more remote than the larger stream; and, that flowing (as was supposed), for many hundred miles through a mountainous region, it should receive no greater accession from mountain torrents. Praun Poori, the Sanyassi, had before this also declared, that the river at Gangoutri, which had been visited by him on his return from Cashmere was so narrow, that

it might be leaped over, which is incompatible with the notion of a distant source of the river. So narrow a stream could only be a mere brook or rivulet, whose remotest source, these gentlemen conjectured, must be only a few miles distant.

To verify or disprove these assertions, Lieutenant Webb was sent by the Bengal government in 1808, to survey the sources of the Ganges, and the information he acquired determined him to assign them a situation south of the Himalaya mountains. His reasons for adopting this opinion he has published, the principal of which are:

1st. That it had been universally experienced during his journey, that the supply of water from springs and tributary streams was sufficient in a course of 8 or 10 miles, to swell the most minute rivulet into a considerable and unfordable stream.

2ndly. The courses of the Ganges and Alacananda rivers were followed, until the former becomes a shallow and almost stagnant pool, and the latter a small stream, and both having in addition to springs and rivulets, a considerable addition from the thawing of the snow. It is therefore concluded from analogy, that the sources of these rivers could be little if at all removed from the station where these remarks were collected.

No doubt therefore can remain, that the different branches of the river above Hurdwar take their rise on the southern side of the highest ridge of snowy mountains; and it is presumable, that all the tributary streams of the Ganges, including the Sarjeu or Goggra, and the Jumna, whose most conspicuous fountain is at a little distance from the Ganges, also rise on the southern side of that chain of mountains.

Every account agreed that the source of the Ganges was more remote than the place called Gangoutri, which is merely the point whence it issues from Himalaya, but not as related, through a secret cavern or passage resembling a cow's mouth, beyond which place the current was still perceptible, although the access was so difficult, as to arrest the progress of the European travellers. The Moonshee, however, having the additional stimulus of religious zeal, penetrated several miles beyond Gangoutri, and in the course of his journey frequently crossed the Ganges on bridges composed of one or two fir trees laid across it from bank to bank. In his field book (published in the Asiatic Researches) he has noted the breadth of the river where last seen by him; but at Gangoutri he describes the expansion of the stream as 40 cubits wide by about two deep, with scarcely any current.

After leaving the post where the European travellers stopped, (17 miles distance from Gangoutri) the Moonshee saw several villages, such as Salung, Cuchian, Tuwara, Kanela, Jhala, Cachora and Dhevali, the last containing 25 huts, five of

which were inhabited; and in the course of 20 miles horizontal distance, the Ganges received the following streams, besides several rivulets and mountain torrents:

The Soar,	The Deorani,	The Shinan,
Tiar,	Lotgarh,	Gongi,
Khotmari,	Jelari,	Harsila,
Revi,	Bhela,	Gangasarti,
Calyani,	Choraki,	Laconya, and
Runka,	Pachahar,	Jahni Ganga, (flowing with great rapidity)
Malicha,	Gangotri,	
Bhangeli,	Nibani.	

As the Moonshee proceeded upwards after leaving Gangoutri, the river was occasionally perceived among the snow; but at the distance of 3 miles from that place the snow so completely filled its bed, that it could neither be seen nor the sound of its current heard, and the superincumbent snow being soiled appeared like a cultivated field. Five hundred yards further on the sacred river again showed itself; but in front was a steep mountain rising up like a huge wall, from an angle of which the Ganges appeared to issue, but all beyond was an impenetrable mass of snow. The height of the place where Captain Hodgson halted, near to which the Ganges issues from under the great snowy bed, was calculated to be 12,914 feet above the level of the sea.

Such is the disappearance of the Bhagirathi, or sanctified branch of the Ganges, as described by the pious and persevering Moonshee; but certainly the Dauli ought to be considered the main stream of the Ganges, if length of course be entitled to that distinction: for the Dauli proceeds from the very base of the highest ridge of the enormous Himalaya chain, and one of its tributary streams issues from the pass which leads through these mountains, whereas the Alacananda, (the next longest branch), has its source in the inferior hills short of the snowy mountains.

From Gangoutri the Ganges has the upper part of its course among the mountains, flowing from the south of east, to the north of west, and it is only from Sookie, where it fairly pierces through the Himalaya, that it assumes a course of about south 20° west to Hurdwar, where it issues from the mountains, and from thence to its conflux with the Jumna at Allahabad, the first large river that joins it in Hindostan proper, the bed of the Ganges is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter wide. From hence its course becomes more winding, and its bed wider, until having successively received the Goggra, the Soane, and the Gunduck, besides many smaller streams, its channel attains its full width, as it afterwards becomes so narrow in some parts as half a mile; and, where no islands interpose, is in some places three miles wide. When at its lowest, the principal

channel varies from 400 yards to 1¼ miles wide, but is commonly about ¾ of a mile in breadth.

The Ganges is fordable at some places above its conflux with the Jumna, but the navigation is never interrupted. At 500 miles from the sea the channel is 30 feet deep, when the river is at its lowest, which depth continues to the sea, where the sudden expansion of the stream deprives it of the force necessary to sweep away the bars of sand and mud, thrown across it by the strong southerly winds, so that the principal branch of the Ganges cannot be entered by large vessels.

It might be expected that this immense river, fed by innumerable sources and springing from what are probably the highest mountains in the world, would in the spring receive large additions from the melting of the snow, and consequently increase in bulk. Some of the branches exhibit such increase; but the augmentation is in general by no means considerable. The melting of the snow undoubtedly contributes to enlarge the river, but is not sufficient to counteract other causes tending to its diminution, so that at any considerable distance from the sources of the Ganges, as at Patna, any cause affecting these sources produces no sensible change in the height of the waters.

About 200 miles from the sea, but 300 reckoning the windings of the river, commences the Delta of the Ganges. The two westernmost branches, named the Cossimbazar and Jellinghy rivers, unite and form what is afterwards named the Hooghly or Bhagirathi river, which forms the port of Calcutta, and the only branch of the Ganges that is commonly navigated by ships. Below the channel named the Sangti Mohana, where the Ganges sends off these two branches, which go to Calcutta, the main stream among the natives loses not only its name, but the greater part of its sanctity. The Cossimbazar river is almost dry from October to May; the Jellinghy river, although a stream runs in it during the whole year, is in some years unnavigable during two or three of the driest months; so that the only secondary branch of the Ganges that is at all times navigable for boats, is the Chandnah river, which separates at Moddapoor, and terminates in the Hooringgotta river. That part of the Delta bordering on the sea is composed of a labyrinth of creeks and rivers, named the Sunderbunds, which, including the rivers that bound it, give an expansion of 200 miles to the branches of the Ganges at its junction with the sea.

The descent of this river is about nine inches per mile; but the windings are so great as to reduce the declivity to less than 4 inches per mile. In the dry season the mean rate of motion is less than 3 miles per hour. In the wet season, and while the waters are draining off from the inundated lands, the current runs from 5 to 6 miles an hour, and there are instances of its running 7 and 8 in particular situations.

The Ganges owes part of its increase to the rain that falls in the mountains, although it does not appear to be much affected by melting of the snow early in spring. The sum total of its rising is 32 feet, out of which it rises 15½ feet, by the latter end of June, and the rainy season does not properly begin in most of the flat countries until about that time. In the mountains the rains begin early in April, and by the end of that month, when the rain water has reached Bengal, the rivers begin to rise by very slow degrees, the increase being only one inch per day for the first fortnight. It then gradually augments to 2 and 3 inches before any quantity of rain has fallen in the countries; and when the rain becomes general, its increase, at a medium, is 5 inches per day. By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Brahmaputra, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than 100 miles in width, nothing appearing but villages and trees, and here and there the artificial site of an abandoned village appearing like an island.

Owing to the quantity of rain that falls in Bengal, the lands in general are overflowed to a considerable height long before the bed of the river is filled, the ground adjacent to the river bank, to the extent of some miles, being higher than the rest of the country. There are particular tracts guarded from inundation by dikes, which are kept up at an enormous expense; yet do not always succeed, owing to the want of tenacity in the soil of which they are composed. It is calculated that the length of these dikes, collectively, exceeds 1000 miles.

Table of the increase of the Ganges and its branches.

	At Jellinghy.	At Dacca.
In May it rose	6 ft. 0 in.	2 ft. 4 in.
June	9 6	4 6
July	12 6	5 6
In the first half of August	4 0	1 11
	Feet 32 0	Feet 14 3

The inundation is nearly at a stand in Bengal for some days preceding the 15th of August, when it begins to run off, although great quantities of rain continue to fall during August and September; but a decrease of rain has by this time taken place to the north, and a consequent deficiency in the supply to keep up the inundation. The daily decrease of the Ganges, during the latter half of August and September, is from 3 to 4 inches; from September to the end of November it gradually lessens from 3 inches to 1 inches; and, from November to the end of April, is only half an inch per day at a medium.

Approaching the sea, from the limits to which the tide reaches, the height of

the periodical increase gradually diminishes, until it totally disappears at the point of confluence with the sea. The ocean preserving at all times the same level, necessarily influences the level of the waters that communicate with it. At Luckipoor there is a difference of about 6 feet, between the height at the different seasons; at Dacca, and places adjacent, 14; and at Custee, of 31 feet. The latter place is about 240 miles from the sea, by the course of the river; and the surface of the river there, during the dry season, is 80 feet above the level of the sea at high water.

The quantity of water discharged by the Ganges in one second of time, during the dry season, is 80,000 cubic feet; but the river when full, having twice the volume of water in it, and its motion being accelerated in the proportion of 5 to 3, the quantity discharged at that season is 405,000 cubic feet. Taking the medium of the whole year, it will be nearly 180,000 cubic feet per second of time. When the inundation is drawing off, the quantity of sand and soil held in suspension by the waters of the Ganges is so great, that in the year 1794, one of the mouths of the Bhagirathi, that opened at Sadigunge, in Bengal, nearly opposite to Sooty, full five miles in length, was filled up to nearly on a level with the contiguous country in the course of a week, although it must have contained above 900,000,000 solid feet.

In Bengal the banks of the Ganges exhibit a variety of appearances, according to the nature of the soil, or the degree of force with which the current strikes against them. In those parts, where the velocity of the stream is greatest, and the soil extremely loose, they become perpendicular, and tumble in so frequently, as to render it dangerous to approach them. The bank is often excavated into a number of deep bays, with projecting points between them, round which the current rushes with great rapidity; but is considerably slackened, and has even a retrograde motion, in the interior part of the gulf. In the higher parts, where a conker soil (a hard, reddish, calcareous earth,) prevails, the banks of the Ganges are not so liable to be undermined.

The Rajemal hills, from which several rocky points project into the river, as Sicrygully, Pointy, and Pattergotta, have for ages opposed effectually the encroachments of the river. The depth of the water in the navigable part of the Ganges, not far from Colgong, is frequently upwards of 70 feet; yet in this neighbourhood new islands have risen to more than 20 feet above the level of the stream. The quantity of land that has been destroyed by the river in the course of a few years, from Colgong to Sooty, will amount, on a moderate calculation, to 40 square miles, or 25,000 square acres; but this is in a great measure counterbalanced, by the alluvion that has taken place on the opposite

shore, and by the new island of Sundeep, which alone contains above 10 square miles.

In its course through the plains the Ganges receives 11 rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, none smaller than the Thames, besides a great many others of lesser note. The largest tributary streams to the Ganges in Bengal and Bahar, are the Goggra, the Soane, and the Cosa. Such of these rivers as are narrowest, are remarkable for their windings; the larger rivers having a tendency to run in more direct lines.

Within the space of 100 miles, the Ganges, by the winding of its course, is calculated to increase the distance to 125 miles.

The Goggra, or Dewa, to 112 miles.

The Hooghly, from Calcutta to Nuddea, increases from 60 to 76 miles.

The Goomty, from its outlet upwards, from 100 to 175 miles.

The Issamutty and Jaboona, from Dewangunge to Bansetullah, increase from 100 to 217 miles.

Although the sources of the Brahmaputra have never been explored, it is probable they are not very far separated from those of the Ganges. From hence they direct their courses towards opposite quarters, until they are more than 1200 miles asunder; but afterwards meet and intermix their waters before they join the sea, the Ganges having then performed a journey, including the windings, of about 1500 miles.

It is only that part of the river which lies in a line from Gangoutri, where its feeble stream issues from the Himalaya, to Sagor island, below Calcutta, that is particularly sacred, and named the Gunga, or Bhagirathi. The Hooghly river therefore of European geographers is considered the true Ganges; and the great branch that runs east to join the Brahmaputra, is, by the Hindoos called Puddah (Padma) or Padmawati, and is not by them esteemed equally sacred. Although the water of the whole river from Gangoutri to Sagor is holy, yet there are places more eminently sacred than the rest, and to these pilgrims from a distance resort to perform their ablutions, and to take up the water that is used in their ceremonies. Wherever this river runs from the south to the north, contrary to the usual direction, it is considered peculiarly holy, and is called Uttarbahini.

The most sanctified of the holy places, are certain Prayags, or junctions of rivers, of which Allahabad, where the Ganges and Jumna unite, is esteemed the principal, and by way of distinction named simply Prayag. The others are situated in Northern Hindostan, in the province of Serinagur or Gurwal, at the confluence of the Alacananda, with different small rivers, and are named

Devaprayaga, Rudraprayaga, Carnaprayaga, and Nandaprayaga. The other sacred places are Hurdwar, where the river first escapes from the mountains; Uttara Janagiri, a short distance below Monghir; and Sagor island, at the mouth of the Calcutta river, or Hooghly. Besides its sanctity, the Ganges is much esteemed for its medicinal properties, and is on this account drank by many Mahommedans. In 1792, Abd ul Hakeem, the reigning Nabob of Shahnoor, near the west coast of India, although a Mahommedan, never drank any other water.

In the Hindoo mythology, Ganga (the Ganges) is described as the daughter of the great mountain Himavata; her sister, Ooma, as the spouse of Mahadeva, the destroying power.

She is called Ganga on account of her flowing through Gang, the earth; she is called Jahnavi, from a choleric Hindoo saint, whose devotions she interrupted on her passage to the sea, when in a fit of displeasure he drank her entirely up; but was afterwards induced by the humble supplications of the devas (demigods) to discharge her by his ears. She is called Bhagirathi, from the royal devotee Bhagaratha, who by the intensity and austerity of his devotions, brought her from heaven to earth, from whence she proceeded to the infernal regions, there to reanimate the ashes of some of his ancestors. And lastly, she is called Triputhaga, on account of her proceeding forward in three different directions, watering the three worlds, heaven, earth, and the infernal regions.

According to the Brahminical mythology, the sea, although dug before the descent of the Ganges from heaven, is, by the Hindoos, supposed to have been empty of water. In the British courts of justice throughout Bengal, the Ganges water is used to swear witnesses, in the same manner as the Evangelists are put into the hands of Christians, and the koran into those of Mahommedans; but many respectable Hindoos refuse to comply with this ceremony, alleging that on such occasions it is forbidden to touch the Ganges water, a Salgram, or a Brahmin. When such cases occur, if the person be of good character, the judges permit him to give his evidence, in the way most consistent with his prejudices.—*(Rennell, Colebrooke, Col. Colebrooke, Webbe, Raper, the Moonshee, F. Buchanan, Ramayuna, Ward, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE BRAHMAPUTRA *(Son of Brahma)* RIVER. The Brahmaputra is the largest river of India, yet amongst the least sacred, and is known in Tibet by the name of the Sanpoo. The sources of this vast current have never been explored, but it is probable they will be found in the tract of elevated land, between the Himalaya and Cailas ranges of mountains, adjacent to Lake Manasarovara, and at no very great distance from those of the Ganges, Indus, and Sutuleje. From hence the river takes its course eastward through the country

of Tibet, or southern Tartary, where it is known by the name of Sanpoo, or Zanchoo, which is understood to mean "the river," in the same manner as Ganga with the Brahminical Hindoos. In its course eastward it passes to the north of Diggarcheh, or Teshoo Loomboo, the residence of the Teshoo Lama, where it is styled Eechoomboo, and thence flows in a wide expanded bed, through many channels, and forming a multitude of islands. Its principal channel near to Teshoo Loomboo, is narrow, deep, and never fordable. In this country it receives the tributary waters of the Pacnomchieu, and various streams from the south, and probably others from the north, unless the surface, as has been suspected, then declines to the north. Proceeding east it passes Lassa, about 30 miles to the south, and taking a vast circuit round the mountains is again lost to European knowledge, but is conjectured to approach within 220 miles of Yunan, the most western province of China, where (about 96° E.) making a sudden curve to the south, it again reappears in Assam, into which country it is supposed to descend by a series of cataracts, and up to which it is said to be navigable.

On reaching Assam the Brahmaputra turns nearly due west, and receives a copious supply of water from that region of rivers. About 104 miles above Gohati, in longitude 91° 48′ E., it separates into two branches, of which the northern is by far the greatest, and retains the name, while the southern is called Kolong; they enclose an island five days' journey in length, and about one in width. Proceeding west it approaches the British possessions, where, after reaching the frontiers of Bengal, for above 20 miles it has the kingdom of Assam on its northern bank, while the southern forms part of British India. About Goalpara, the frontier town, its expanse is magnificent, and the scenery grand; but the water is extremely dirty, and the surface, during the floods, covered with a dusky foam, intermixed with logs of wood, vast floats of reeds, and a great variety of dead bodies, especially those of men, deer, and oxen, which are scarcely less offensive to the senses, than the half-burned human carcasses on the banks of the sacred Ganges.

Having penetrated through Assam, the Brahmaputra rushes to the notice of Europeans in the Rungpoor district, with increased volume, and a channel at least a mile broad, and when not incumbered with islands, continues nearly of the same width; but in several places these subdivide the channel into many parts, and enlarge its size, so that from bank to bank, there is often a distance of 5 miles. In the dry season, in this part of its course, the water no where fills the channel, even where narrowest; in the wet season, except where there are a few scattered hills, the river everywhere overflows its banks, and in many parts deluges an extent of from 20 to 30 miles, insulating such small hills as are

in the vicinity. In the Rungpoor district the rise of the Brahmaputra usually commences in April, and in the beginning of May increases still further. This may be partly owing to the melting of snow in the mountains; but in general the swelling of the river, and the inundation, are chiefly effected by the rains in the immediate neighbourhood. A few fair days always diminish its size, and it never rises much except after very heavy rain. The rapidity and bulk of the river continue gradually to increase, and it attains its greatest elevation about the beginning of August, towards the end of which it subsides, and the current loses much of its force. The inundation contracts at the same time; and, although the river usually rises once or twice in September and the beginning of October, it has never been known in these months to pass beyond the bounds of its regular channel. Within the limits of Bengal the Brahmaputra is not fordable at any season; but its navigation is rendered difficult by the great number of sand banks, and the trunks of trees half buried in its bed. Within the British territories, the numberless islands and channels are undergoing incessant changes; and the like mutations may be expected to continue.

After entering Bengal, the Brahmaputra makes a circuit round the western point of the Garrow mountains, and then altering its course to the south in the Dacca province, is joined by the Megna, which although not the tenth part of its magnitude, most unaccountably absorbs its name, and communicates its own to the huge mass of waters, until they intermix with those of the Ganges, near the Bay of Bengal. In 1809, the Brahmaputra threatened, by a change of its course, to carry away all the vicinity of Dewangunge, and perhaps to force its way into the Nattore Jeels, in the Rajshahy district, which would very much disturb the modern geography of Bengal. The course of this river, including the windings, may be estimated at 1650 miles; but it is the fate of the Brahmaputra to penetrate a rude climate and barren soil, seldom approaching the habitations of civilized man, while the Ganges, on the contrary, flows along a fertile territory, and through rich and polished nations. Yet they meet at last in the same gulf of the ocean, so that they are not only nearly related in their birth, but united in their termination.

During its journey through Bengal, the Brahmaputra bears so intimate a relation to the Ganges, that one description suits both, except that during the last sixty miles above their junction, under the name of Megna it forms a stream which is regularly from 4 to 5 miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. The union of these two mighty rivers below Luckipoor, now forms a gulf, interspersed with many islands, some equal in size to the Isle of Wight. The bore, which is a sudden and abrupt influx of the sea into a river or narrow strait, prevails in the principal branches of the Ganges, and in the Megna; but

the Hooghly river and the passages between the islands and sands situated in the gulf formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, are more subject to it than the other rivers. Notwithstanding its immense magnitude, the latter until 1765 was unknown in Europe as a capital river of India, nor did it ever among the Hindoos attain the same reputation for sanctity, or conciliate the same interest, as its female neighbour, the Ganges. In Assam it is named Lusit or Luhit, and in sanscrit is called Luhityo, as well as Brahmaputra. The name last mentioned signifies the son of Brahma, the creator of the world, and its vast bulk might in a figurative sense entitle it to that appellation; but such is not the derivation given by Hindoo mythologists. According to these sages, it owes its origin to an intrigue which took place between Brahma and Omegha, the wife of a holy man named Santona, the particulars of which on account of their extravagant indecency do not admit of narration.—*(F. Buchanan, Turner, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

MEGNA RIVER. This is formed by the junction of numerous streams issuing from the mountains which form the northern and eastern boundaries of the Silhet district, but its course is short, and its bulk small, until its confluence with the Brahmaputra, about lat. 24° 10′ N. after which it absorbs the name of the latter and communicates its own. Eighteen miles south-east from Dacca it is joined by the Issamutty, bringing the collected waters of the Dullasery, Boorigunga (or old Ganges), Luckia, and many smaller streams, the aggregate forming an expanse of water resembling an inland sea. From hence the course of the Megna is S.S.E. until it approaches the sea, when its volume is augmented by the great Ganges; and they conjointly roll their muddy tide into the Bay of Bengal. Many islands are formed from the sediment deposited by this vast body of water, among which number are Dukkinshahabazpoor (30 miles by 12), Hattia, Sundeep, and Baminy.

The sand and mud banks extend 30 miles beyond these islands, and rise in many places within a few feet of the surface. Some future generation will probably see these banks rise above water, and succeeding ones possess and cultivate them; but while the river is forming new islands at its mouth, it is sweeping away and altering old ones in the upper part of its course. In the channels between the islands, the height of the bore (the perpendicular influx of the tide) is said to exceed 12 feet. After the tide is fairly past the islands, the bore is but little seen, except in some narrow channels formed by sand banks; the breadth of the main stream admitting the influx of the tide without any lateral compression. *(Rennell, &c. &c.)*

The periodical winds that prevail in the Bay of Bengal, extend their influence over the flat country, until they are diverted by chains of mountains into another direction, nearly correspondent, however, with the course of the Ganges; for

when a province is intersected by very large rivers, it is probable that the winds are much affected by their course. In the south of Bengal, the prevailing winds are north and south; in Bahar they are east and west, and the same takes place in Assam, following the direction of the great river Brahmaputra. In Bengal northerly and southerly winds blow alternately, during unequal portions of the year, over that quarter of the province which faces the head of the bay. The seasons of Bengal conform nearly with these changes of the prevailing winds, and are commonly distinguished by the terms cold, hot, and rainy.

In the beginning of April, and sometimes earlier, particularly in the south-eastern quarter of Bengal, there are frequent storms of thunder, lightening, wind and rain, from the north-west quarter, which happen more frequently towards the close of the day than at any other time. During this season much attention and care is required in navigating the large rivers. These squalls moderate the heat, and continue until the setting in of the periodical rains, which generally commence in the beginning of June. If the rains break up early in September, the weather is intensely hot, and the inhabitants, especially the European part, become very sickly. The natives from the result of their own experience assign six seasons to the year, each containing two months. The spring and dry season occupy four months, during which the heat progressively increases, until it becomes almost intolerable, even to those born in the country. In the middle districts it is lessened by occasional thunder storms, named north-westers; and, in the eastern, milder showers of rain are still more frequent and refresh the atmosphere.

The scorched inhabitants are at length relieved by the rainy season, which in general commences nearly at the same time throughout the whole province. During the first two months the rain is heavy and continual. In this period an interval of many successive days is rare, and the rain pours with such force and perseverance, that three, four, and even five inches of water have been known to fall in a single day. In the two following months the intermissions are more frequent, and of longer duration, and the weather more sultry. The rivers, and especially the Ganges, which begin to rise even before the commencement of the rainy season, continue to increase during the two first months of it, and the Ganges reaches its greatest height in the third. By this time the rivers of Bengal are swollen, and the Delta of the Ganges overflowed. The average annual fall of rain in the lower parts of Bengal, is seldom short of 70, and as rarely exceeds 80 inches.

At the approach of winter the rivers begin to decrease, the showers cease to fall, and the inundation gradually drains off and evaporates. Fogs, the natural consequence of such evaporation in cold weather, are frequent in most parts of

Bengal proper. Dew, at this season, is every where abundant and penetrating; and, in the higher latitudes of India, as well as in the mountainous tracts of it, frost and extreme cold are experienced. Even in the flat country ice is obtained by the simple artifice of assisting evaporation in porous vessels, although the atmosphere be much warmer than the freezing temperature. Throughout the whole winter in Bengal, dews continue copious, and greatly assist vegetation, affording nearly as much moisture as corn requires in a soil so loose.

As the damp of the climate cannot be ascribed to any inherent moisture of the soil, it must originate from causes on or above the surface: to the want of a general system of drainage in a level country, to the luxuriant vegetation, and to the closeness of the woods, which not being adequately opened obstruct the ventilation of the country, and retain a redundant and unwholesome quantity of moisture, amidst rotten leaves and putrid vegetable substances. In the cold and dry seasons the heavy dews are probably not more than sufficient to supply the daily exhaustion of the sun, and probably rather contribute to salubrity than otherwise. Under these circumstances, the principal experiments should be directed to draining on a general plan, and the cutting of broad straight roads through the forests and jungles, as much as possible in the direction of the prevailing winds.

The great variety of lofty flower and fruit bearing trees, and the luxuriant bamboos, by which the cottages are shaded, would render their situations delightful, did not rank weeds and bushes shoot up with increasing vigour in every corner that is not in constant cultivation, prevent all circulation of air, preserve a constant damp noisome vapour, and harbour a great variety of loathsome and pernicious animals. The poverty, shyness, and indolence of the natives, especially the two former, prevent them from removing these nuisances. They are fond of having their houses buried in a thicket which skreens their females from view. Besides this the adjoining thickets are their retreats on all occasions, which aggravates the other vile smells.

In this province the barometer is very stationary, and seemingly unaffected by changes of temperature, for here, as in most countries near the tropics, the barometer has a very confined range, and does not vary with the fluctuations of the temperature, owing to contrary but equal variations of density and elasticity of the air, and other countervailing causes not yet investigated. In Bengal, the column of mercury stands within a few tenths of an inch of the same height, at all seasons of the year, and exhibits, but within narrower limits, the phenomenon of diurnal tides, which also do not correspond with the rise and fall of the thermometer. Towards the end of February the barometer does not vary in Bengal so much as the tenth of an inch above or below 30 inches, while the

thermometer in the shade ranges ten degrees (from 70° to 80°), and much more in an open exposure, between morning and noon. In the months of December and January, the season when the column of mercury is at its maximum, the mean elevation of the barometer is 30. 07, while that of the thermometer is 68°. *(Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Rennell, Abul Fazel, East, &c. &c.)*

CHAPTER II.

SOIL, SUBSTRATA, MINERALS, INUNDATION, AGRICULTURE, HUSBANDRY, MODES OF CULTIVATION, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS, STAPLE PRODUCTIONS, SUGAR, TOBACCO, SILK, COTTON, INDIGO, AND RICE.

THE general soil of Bengal is clay, with a considerable proportion of silicious sand fertilized by various salts, and by decayed substances, animal and vegetable. In the flat country sand is everywhere the basis of this stratum of productive earth, which indicates an accession of soil on land which has been gained by the dereliction of the water. A period of 30 years scarcely covers the barren sand with soil sufficient to fit it to reward the labours of the husbandmen, the lapse of half a century does not remove it half a span from the surface. In tracts which are annually inundated the progress is more rapid, because the superincumbent water, having clay in solution, deposits it in the process of evaporation. Running water deposits sand, and keeps the clay, calcareous matter, and other fertilizing substances suspended. If the variable proportions of clay and sand, and the circumstance of frequent alterations in the channels of rivers be considered, great inequalities of soil may be expected, although it be composed of few substances.

In May 1814, a boring was commenced near the river Hooghly, in the vicinity of Calcutta, in search of a spring of pure water, which although unsuccessful, furnished so much satisfactory information relative to the under strata of Bengal, that it has been deemed expedient to insert here the table of the different proportions, which may be considered applicable to the province generally :—

2 ft.	0 ft.	dry earth and brick-dust.
3 to	6 inclusive;	dry sand with a little clay.
7 —	21	blue clay with sand more or less.
22 —	31	blue clay with sheer coal.

32ft. to 52ft. blue clay with a little rotten wood.
53 — 56 blue clay with coal.
57 — very stiff blue clay, with a little gravel (conker).
58 — 61 the same, but the gravel mixed with greenish clay.
62 — the same without the greenish clay mixture.
63 — 65 very stiff blue clay, with a little yellow clay, mixed with a little conker.
66 — 68 the same, but yellow sand in place of clay.
69 — 70 stiff blue clay, with a little yellowish sand and clay.
71 — 76 damp reddish clay, with a quarter of sand, with a yellow tinge from 73.
77 — 84 yellow reddish clay, mixed with sand with a little talc.
85 — 92 yellow clay mixed with sand.
93 — 96 yellow sand inclining to clay.
97 — 100 blue clay with yellow sand.
100 — 102 lead coloured clay with yellow sand.
103 — 105 blue and yellow clay, with yellow sand, and a little conker.
108 — 113 the same with conker.
114 — 118 stiff deep yellow clay with a little yellow sand.
119 — 122 soft deep yellow clay with more yellow sand.
123 — 125 coarse greenish yellow sand.
126 — 127 the same with a little yellow clay.
128 — 131 coarse dark grey sand.
132 — the same red and grey.
133 — 138 dark grey sand, with a little talc; the sand becoming coarser downwards.
139 — 140 coarse dark grey sand.

In this experiment the primary object wholly failed, as no springs of fresh water were reached, although it had always been a commonly received opinion, that the soil of Bengal was particularly moist, and full of springs. The reverse, however, at least so far as refers to the vicinity of Calcutta, proved to be the fact. The first appearance of any damp was at the depth of 71 feet, in a reddish clay with a quarter of sand, and below 76 feet, was as dry as near the surface, and on this occasion the borer must have descended nearly to the level of the sea. Through the whole of these strata, to the depth of 140 feet, no traces of volcanic matter were discovered, which renders it probable, that the shocks of earthquakes about Calcutta, if they have any sympathy with volcanoes, do not originate from any very proximate cause, which is also corroborated by the general feebleness of the shocks. The Monghir hills, which are said to

contain volcanic matter, lie at the distance of 250 miles from Calcutta. It may be inferred from this description that Bengal proper contains few minerals of any kind, which could not be expected in so alluvial a soil; such as do occur will be mentioned, when treating of the particular districts in which they are found, and which may be in a great measure restricted to Birboom and Burdwan, especially the first, where iron ore has been found in considerable abundance.

In the tract subject to annual inundation, insulated habitations, and fields considerably raised above the level of the country, exhibit the effects of patient industry. In the same tract during the season of rain, a scene presents itself interesting by its novelty: a navigation over fields submerged to a considerable depth, while the ears of rice float on the surface. Stupendous dikes, not altogether preventing inundation, but checking its excesses. The peasants repairing to the markets, and even to the fields, on embarkations, accompanied by their families and domestic animals, from an apprehension that the water might rise suddenly, and drown their children and cattle, in the absence of their boats. When the peasant's habitation is passed, and the height of the flood observed nearly to the level of the artificial mound on which his dwelling stands, his precaution does not appear superfluous.

The assemblage of peasants in their villages, their small farms, and the want of enclosures, bar all great improvements in husbandry; in a country, however, so infested by tigers and gang robbers (dacoits), or river pirates, solitary dwellings, and unattended cattle, would be insecure. Another obstacle to improvement is the mixture of trades; the peasants indifferently quitting the plough to use the loom, and the loom to resume the plough.

In 1793 the estimated produce of the land, in maunds of 80 pounds each, was as follows; but the value affixed appears too high.

	Rupees.
150,000,000 maunds of rice, wheat, and barley, at 12 annas per maund	112,500,000
60,000,000 millet, &c., at 8 annas	30,000,000
90,000,000 pulse, at 10 annas	56,250,000
43,000,000 maunds of seed reserved for the following season	28,380,000
Oil seeds	12,000,000
Sugar, tobacco, cotton, &c.	70,000,000
Sundries	20,000,000
Gross produce of the land	329,130,000

In Bengal and Bahar only one-third of the land is estimated to be tilled, but this is exclusive of lays and fallows. In England there are four acres of arable

and meadow land for every inhabitant. In Bengal little more than one acre of tilled ground for every inhabitant. The natural seasons of rice are ascertained from the progress of the wild plant, which sows itself in the first months of the winter, and vegetates with the early moisture at the approach of the rains. During the period of the rains it ripens, and drops its seed with the commencement of winter. But the common husbandry of Bengal sows the rice at the season when it would naturally vegetate, to gather a crop in the rains; it also withholds seed until the second month of that season, and reaps the harvest the beginning of winter. The rice of this last crop is esteemed the best, not being equally liable with the other to decay. The several seasons of cultivation added to the influence of soil and climate, have multiplied the different species of rice to an endless diversity.

Other corn is more limited in its varieties and seasons. Of wheat and barley few sorts are distinguished; they are all sown at the commencement of the cold season, and reaped in the spring. A great variety of different sorts of pulse (such as peas, chiches, pigeon peas, kidney beans, &c.) finds its place also in the occupations of husbandry, no season being without its appropriate species; but most sorts are sown or reaped in winter. These constitute a valuable article in Bengal husbandry, because they thrive even on poor soils, and require but little culture. Millet and other grains are also of importance; several sorts restricted to no particular season, and vegetating rapidly, are useful, because they occupy an interval after a tedious harvest, which does not permit the usual course of husbandry. Maize is less cultivated in Bengal than in most countries where it is acclimated. It is the most general produce of poor soils in hilly countries, and is consequently very generally cultivated in the more western provinces, which are of an irregular surface.

The universal and vast consumption of vegetable oils in Bengal is supplied by the extensive cultivation of mustard seed, linseed, sesamum, and palma christi, besides what is procured from the cocoa nut. The first occupy the cold season; the sesamum ripens in the rains, or early after their close.

Among the most important productions of Bengal are tobacco, indigo, cotton, the mulberry and poppy, most of which require land solely appropriated to the cultivation of each. It is a well known fact, that newly cleared land for the first four or five years, yields the most productive crops of indigo. The grand object of the farmer in Bengal is to have an equable supply of water; and the rains in general are so copious, that if the water were confined on the spot where it fell, the supply would never fail, and it never would be too great, as the power of vegetation would always surpass the rise of the water. But, as even in Bengal, there are inequalities of surface, the lower parts are often

drowned by sudden rains, and the upper frequently scorched by too long intervals of fair weather. The natives have in consequence an opinion, which appears well founded, that there cannot be too many small embankments, passing in all directions through the country.

The plough in this province is drawn by a single yoke of oxen, guided by the ploughman himself; and two or three yoke of oxen assigned to each plough, relieve each other until the task is completed. Several ploughs in succession deepen the furrows, or rather scratch the surface, for the implement which is used throughout India, wants a contrivance for turning up the earth, and the share has neither width nor depth sufficient to stir a new soil. A second ploughing crosses the first, and a third is sometimes given diagonally to the preceding. These, frequently repeated, and followed by the branch of a tree, or some other substitute for a harrow, pulverize the soil, and prepare it for the reception of seed. The field must be watched several days to defend it from the depredations of numerous flocks of birds; and it is necessary still longer to prolong the defence of the field in those districts which are much infested by wild boars, elephants, buffaloes, and deer. For this purpose a bamboo stage is erected, and a watchman stationed on it to scare wild animals, should any approach. In all districts maize, and some sorts of millet, when nearly arrived at maturity, generally need defence from the depredations of birds by day, and of large bats by night.

The sickle, for the scythe is unknown, reaps every harvest. With this the peasant picks out the ripest plants, yet often suffers another field to stand long after the greatest part of the crop is arrived at maturity. The practice of stacking corn reserved for seed, is very unusual, the husk which covers rice preserves it so effectually. At the peasant's convenience the cattle tread out the corn, or his staff threshes out the smaller seeds. The grain is winnowed by the wind, and is stored either in jars of unbaked earth, or in baskets made of large twigs. The practice of storing grain in subterraneous hoards, which is frequent in Benares and the western provinces, and also in the south of India, is not adapted to the damp climate and moist soil of Bengal, where grain is hoarded above ground, in round huts, the floor of which is raised a foot or two above the surface.

In the management of forced rice by irrigation, dams retain the water on extensive plains, or preserve it in lakes, to water lower land as occasion may require. Reservoirs, ponds, water courses, and dikes, are more generally in a progress of decay than of improvement. The rotation of crops, which engrosses so much the attention of enlightened cultivators in Europe, is not understood in

India, and a course of husbandry, extending beyond a year, was never dreamed of by a Bengal farmer. Neither is he, in the succession within the year, guided by any choice of an article, adapted to restore the fertility of land impoverished by a former crop. The Indian cultivator allows his field a lay, but never a fallow.

In Bengal many tanks have been dug, which are frequently useful in supplying the inhabitants with water, not only for domestic purposes, but also for irrigation. But ostentation and the love of fame, have in some parts increased the number and size of these excavations to a destructive extent, no one being interested in their repair, which is not productive of any reputation. Almost every tank, therefore, is soon choked up with aquatic plants, and becomes a source of vile smells, bad water, and distempers; and there being many more tanks than are requisite, much land is thereby lost to agriculture. In some parts of the province the evil has reached to such a pitch, that the digging of a new tank ought to be prohibited, unless the necessity for its construction be previously established, and security ought to be taken for its being kept in proper repair, and free from noxious weeds. At present the only measure taken by the natives for this purpose in large tanks, is to place a quantity of mercury at the bottom of the tank on its first formation; and although numberless examples of the inefficacy of this absurd expedient daily occur, the excavators continue perfectly credulous.

The cattle kept for labour and subsistence are mostly pastured on small commons, or other pasturage, intermixed with arable lands, or they are fed at home on cut grass. The cattle for breeding and for the dairy, are grazed in numerous herds, in the forests or on the downs. The dung, in place of being applied to the fields, is carefully collected for fuel. The Bengal farmer restricts the use of manure to sugar cane, mulberry, tobacco, poppy, and some other articles. Of the management of manure little occurs worthy of notice, except to mention, that oil cake is sometimes used as a manure for sugar cane.

The simple tools which the native employs in every art are so coarse, and apparently so inadequate to their purpose, that it creates surprise how he can effect his undertaking; but the long continuance of feeble efforts accomplishes what, compared with the means, appears impracticable. The plough is among the instruments that stand most in need of improvement. The readiness with which the Indian can turn from his usual occupation to another branch of the same art, or to a new profession, is characteristic of his country; and the success of his earliest efforts, in any employment new to him, is daily remarked with surprise. The want of capital in manufactures or agriculture, prevents the subdivision of labour. Every manufacturer, and every artist, working on his

own account, conducts the whole process of his art, from the formation of his tools, to the sale of his production. Every labourer and artizan, who has frequently occasion to recur to the labours of the field, becomes a husbandman.

A cultivator in Bengal who employs servants, employs one for each plough, and pays him monthly wages, which on an average do not exceed one rupee per month, and in a very cheap district, the wages are so low as half a rupee; but the task on the medium of one third of an acre per day is completed by noon. The cattle are then left to the herdsman's care, and the ploughman follows other occupations during the remainder of the day. Generally, he cultivates some land on his own account, and this he commonly rents from his employer for a payment in kind. If the herd be sufficiently numerous to occupy one person, a servant is entertained, and receives in food, money, and clothing to the value of one rupee and a half per mensem. The plough itself costs less than a rupee. The cattle employed in husbandry are of the smallest kind, the cost on an average being not more than five rupees each. The price of labour may be computed from the usual hire of a plough with its yoke of oxen, which may be stated on the medium to be about 4*d.* per day. The cleaning of the rice is executed with a wooden pestle and mortar, the allowance of husking it being nearly uniform; the person performing this contracting to deliver back $\frac{5}{8}$ths of the weight in clean rice, the surplus, with the chaff or bran, paying for the labour. Five quarters of rice per acre are reckoned a large produce, and a return of 15 for one on the seed.

Slavery, in its severest sense, is not known in Bengal. Throughout some districts the labour of the husbandman is executed chiefly by bond servants. In certain other districts the ploughmen are mostly slaves of the peasants, for whom they labour, but are treated by their masters more like hereditary servants, or mancipated hinds, than like purchased slaves. Although the fact must be admitted, that slaves may be found in Bengal, among the labourers in husbandry, yet in most parts none but free men are occupied in the business of agriculture.

As a middle course of husbandry two yearly harvests may be assumed from each field; one of white corn, and another of pulse, oil seed, or millet. The price of corn in Bengal fluctuates much more than in Europe, and has a considerable influence on the value of most other articles, though it cannot regulate the price of all. When the crops of corn happen to be abundant, it is not only cheap, but wants a ready market; and as the payment of the rent is regulated by the season of the harvest, the cultivator thereby sustains considerable detriment.

In Bengal, where the revenue of the state has had the form of land rent, the

management of the public finances has a more immediate influence on agriculture, than any other branch of the administration. It may be presumed, however, the lands in Bengal are better cultivated, and rendered more productive, as notwithstanding the increased export of grain (from 30 to 45,000 tons annually), and the large tracts of country required for the growth of sugar, indigo, and other articles exported by sea, the price of rice, and of every other kind of food used by the natives, so far from being enhanced, was considerably lower on the average of the ten years, from 1790 to 1800, than during any preceding period since the acquisition of the province; nor has Bengal suffered a famine of any severity since the year 1770, which is more than can be said of any other part of India.

The orchard in this province is what chiefly contributes to attach the peasant to his native soil, although the seasons in Bengal are not favourable for the production of many kinds of fruit, owing to the rains occupying the greater part of the summer, and the heat of the spring is not sufficient to bring them to maturity before the rainy season commences. But he feels a superstitious veneration for the trees planted by his ancestors, and derives comfort and profit from their fruit. Orchards of mangoe trees diversify the plain in every part of Bengal, and the palmira abounds in Bahar. The cocoa nut thrives in those parts of Bengal which are not remote from tropic, and the date tree grows everywhere, but especially in Bahar. Plantations of areca are common in the central parts of Bengal; the bassia thrives even on the poorest soils, and abounds in the hilly districts. Its inflated corols are excellent and nutritious, and yield, by distillation, an intoxicating spirit. The oil expressed from its seeds is, in mountainous districts, a common substitute for butter. Clumps of bamboos abound, and flourish as long as they are not too abruptly thinned. This plant is remarkable for its growth. Its greatest height is completed in a single year; and during the second, its wood acquires all the hardness and elasticity which render it so useful. They supply the peasant with materials for building, and may also yield him profit, as it is probable a single acre of thriving bamboos produces more wood than ten of any other tree.

Potatoes have been introduced into Bengal, and apparently with the most beneficial effect. The quantity procured by Europeans at almost every season of the year, shews that they are not unsuited to the climate, and the small potatoe is little, if at all, inferior to that of England; but the crop being less abundant, this article in the market is generally dearer than rice. The watery insipidity of tropical plants, is a circumstance universally noticed by Europeans on their arrival in the East Indies. Asparagus, cauliflower, and other esculent plants, are raised, but they are comparatively tasteless.

The profits of cattle consist in the increase of stock, and the milk of buffaloes, which are grazed at a very small expense, not exceeding half a rupee annually, and a quarter of a rupee for cows. Cattle constitute a considerable portion of the peasant's wealth, and the profits of stock would be much greater, did the consumption of animal food take off barren cows, and oxen which have passed their prime. This is not sufficient to render sheep an object of general attention. Their wool supplies the home consumption of blankets, but it is too coarse, and produces too low a price, to afford a large profit on this species of stock.

The native Bengally horse, or tattoo, is a thin, ill-shaped, and every way contemptible animal, and is never used in a team; bullocks being selected for that purpose. The Bengally cart is nearly as bad as their plough, with ill made wheels and axletrees, which never being oiled, make a loud creaking noise; nor can the native driver be prevailed on to alter what was the custom of his forefathers. The elephants, camels, and oxen attached to the Company's troops, are kept in excellent condition. The buffaloes are generally jet black, with long semicircular horns, which instead of standing erect, or bending forward, are laid backwards on the neck. When he attacks, he puts his snout between his forelegs, which enables him to point his horns forward. The Bengally sheep are naturally of a diminutive breed, thin and lank, and of a dark grey colour, but when fattened for the table the mutton equals that of Europe. Some of them have four horns, two on each side of the head.

Pariah dogs infest the streets of all the towns in Bengal, and the approach of evening is announced in the country by the howling of jackals, which then quit their retreats in the jungles. Apes and monkies swarm in all the woods, and sometimes plunder the fruit shops of a village. Being a sacred animal, the natives often voluntarily supply their wants, and seldom injure them. The Brahminy, or sacred bull of the Hindoos, also rambles about the country without interruption; he is caressed and pampered by the people; to feed him being deemed a meritorious act of religion. The crow, kite, mayana, and sparrow, hop about the dwellings of the Bengalese, with a familiarity and sense of safety unknown in Europe. Storks are seen in great numbers; and, from their military strut, are named adjutants by the European soldiers; toads, snakes, frogs, lizards, and insects, which abound, are their food.

The abundance of fish affords a supply almost attainable by every class, and in the Ganges, and its innumerable branches, are many different kinds. Their plenty at some seasons is so great that they become the food of the poorest natives, who are said to contract diseases from a too liberal indulgence. The smallest kind are all equally acceptable in a curry, the standing dish in every native

family throughout Hindostan; and in fact, with their pilau, comprehends their whole art of cookery. The bickty, or cockup, is an excellent fish, as is also the sable fish, which is uncommonly rich. But the best and highest flavoured fish, not only in Bengal, but in the whole world, is the mangoe fish, so named from its appearing in the rivers during the mangoe season. They are a favourite dish at every European table, particularly during the two months when they are in roe. Mullet abound in all the rivers, and may be killed with small shot, as they swim against the stream, with their heads partly out of the water. Oysters are procured from the coast of Chittagong, not so large, but fully as well flavoured as those of Europe. Alligators and porpusses abound in all the Bengal rivers, where there are also incredible quantities of small turtle, which are however of a very bad quality, and only eaten by some inferior casts of natives.

The staple productions of Bengal for exportation are sugar, tobacco, silk, cotton, and indigo.

Tobacco, it is probable, was unknown to India, as well as to Europe, before the discovery of America. It appears from a proclamation of the Emperor Jehangire, mentioned by that prince in his own memoirs, that it was introduced by Europeans into India, either in his own reign (the beginning of the 17th century) or during that of his father Acber. The Hindoos have names for the plant in their own language; but these names, not excepting the sanscrit, seem to be corrupted from the European denomination of the plant, and not to be found in old compositions. The practice, however, of inhaling the smoke of hemp leaves, and other intoxicating drugs, is ancient, and for this reason the use of tobacco, when once introduced, soon became general throughout India, and the plant is now cultivated in every part of Hindostan. It requires as good a soil as opium, and the land must be well manured. Although it be not absolutely limited to the same districts, its culture prevails mostly in the northern quarter, and is but thinly scattered in the southern. Including every charge for duties and agency, it may be procured in Calcutta at about eight shillings per maund of 80 pounds.

The sugar cane, the name of which was scarcely known to the ancient inhabitants of Europe, grew luxuriantly throughout Bengal in the remotest times. From India it was introduced into Arabia, and from thence into Europe and Africa. From Benares to Rungpoor, and from the borders of Assam to Cuttack, there is scarcely a district in Bengal, or its dependent provinces, wherein the sugar cane does not flourish. It thrives most especially in the districts of Benares, Bahar, Rungpoor, Birboom, Burdwan, and Midnapoor—is successfully cultivated in all; and there seems to be no other bounds to the possible produc-

tion of sugar in Bengal, than the limits of the demand, and the consequent vent for it. The growth for home consumption, and for inland trade is vast, and it only needs encouragement to equal the demand for Europe also, being cheaply produced and frugally manufactured. Raw sugar prepared in a mode peculiar to India, but analogous to the process of making muscovado, may generally be purchased in the Calcutta market, under 18*s.* 6*d.* per maund of 80 pounds weight.

Cotton is cultivated throughout Bengal, and has lately been raised and exported by sea in increased quantities. Besides what is produced in the country, a large importation takes place from the banks of the Jumna and the Deccan. It is there raised so much more cheaply than in Bengal, that it supports a successful competition, notwithstanding the heavy expenses of distant transport by land and water. A fine sort of cotton is grown in the more eastern parts of Bengal, for the most delicate manufactures, and a coarse kind is gathered in every part of the province, from plants thinly interspersed in fields of pulse. The names of cotton in most European languages, are obviously derived from the Arabic word kutn, pronounced cootn. Some sorts are indigenous to America, others are certainly natives of India, which has at all times been the country most celebrated for cotton manufactures.

Different sorts of cotton, very unequal in quality, are imported by land into Bengal; the best is brought from Nagpoor in the Deccan, to Mirzapoor in the province of Benares, which town is the principal inland mart for cotton. Its average price may be reckoned there at 2*l.* 5*s.* per cwt. The usual price at Nagpoor from a variety of averages is equivalent to 2¾*d.* per pound. Cotton is also imported from Jalooan, a town situated in the west of the Jumna, from Hatras in the province of Agra, and from other places.

Europe was anciently supplied with silk, through the medium of Indian commerce. The ancient language of India has names for the silk worm and manufactured silk, and among the numerous tribes of Hindoos, derived from the mixture of the original races, there were two classes, whose appropriate occupations were the feeding of silk worms, and the spinning of silk. A peasant, who feeds his own silk worms, has full employment for his family. The rearing of silk worms is principally confined to a part of the district of Burdwan, and to the vicinity of the Bhagirati and Great Ganges, from the fork of these rivers, for about one hundred miles down their streams. The stations where the Company's investment of silk is principally procured are Commercolly, Jungeypoor, Bauleah, Malda, Radanagore, Rungpoor and Cossimbazar. There is also a considerable quantity of silk obtained from wild silk worms, and from those which are fed from other plants besides the mulberry. Much silk of this kind supplies home consur ption, much is imported from the countries situated on the north-

west border of Bengal, and on the southern frontier of Benares; much is exported, wrought and unwrought, to the western parts of India, and some enters into manufactures which are greatly in request in Europe. Four crops of mulberry leaves are obtained from the same field in the course of each year; the best in December.

The manufacture of indigo appears to have been known and practised in India from the earliest period. From this country, whence it derives its name, Europe was anciently supplied with it, until the produce of America engrossed the market. The spirited exertions of a few individuals have restored this commerce to Bengal, solely by the superior quality of their manufactures; for as far as regards the culture, no material change has been made in the practice of the natives. The profit depends in a great measure on the quality of the article, and this is very unequal, since it varies according to the skill of the manufacturer. In 1807-8 the total manufacture of indigo, on a correct estimate, was not less than 120,000 factory maunds, of which probably 20,000 maunds were wasted or consumed in the country manufactures. The total quantity of indigo, British property, which was sold at the East India Company's sales in 1810, amounted to the enormous weight of 5,253,489 pounds, and the sale price 1,942,328*l.*; but the average cannot be reckoned at more than 1,200,000*l.* annually, almost the whole being exported from Bengal. In 1786 the quantity sold at the Company's sales amounted to only 245,011 pounds. In 1814, the quantity entered from inland at the Calcutta custom-house amounted to 102,524 factory maunds, or about 8,200,000 pounds.

The principal food of the great body of people who inhabit these provinces is rice, of which, from the fertility of the soil, the combined result of an ardent sun, and the saturating periodical rains, two crops are produced annually, besides a variety of other grain and pulse. The first harvest is gathered in about the end of August, the second, which is the greatest, in December, and the lesser articles from February until the end of April, so that the land yields its fruits almost the whole year. In general the supply is so abundant as to render Bengal the granary of India, and it is at very distant intervals that a season is not bountiful. The natives from their indolent and improvident habits, never practised the precaution of keeping a stock of grain in reserve, the knowledge of which under a native government, would have exposed them to its extortions. When a season of drought therefore intervenes, the ground is parched up and a scarcity ensues, which is much aggravated to the poor by the artifices of the grain dealers: should a deficiency of rain continue through two successive seasons, the grain in store would be wholly unequal to the supply of a people whose subsistence is almost entirely vegetable.—(*Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, East, Tennant, C. Grant, &c. &c. &c.*)

CHAPTER III.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, STAPLE COMMODITIES, EXPORTS AND IMPORTS, INLAND NAVIGATION, LAND CARRIAGE, ROADS, HIGHWAYS, COMMERCIAL RESIDENCIES, CUSTOM HOUSES, SALT AGENCIES, SEAPORTS, MARKETS, CURRENCY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, BANKERS AND MONEY CHANGERS.

THE exportation of grain from the corn districts, and the returns of salt, constitute the principal objects of internal trade. The importation of cotton from the western provinces, and the exchange of tobacco for betel nut, together with some sugar, and a few articles of less note, complete the supply for internal consumption. Piece goods, silk, saltpetre, opium, sugar, and indigo, formerly passed almost wholly through the Company's hands; but now all sorts of traffic are much more open, and practised generally by every description of merchant. Grain, the internal commerce of which is entirely conducted by the natives, supplies the consumption of the cities and the export trade of Bengal; but, except in cities, the great mass of the population is everywhere subsisted from the produce of their immediate neighbourhood.

Plain muslins, distinguished by their various names, according to the closeness or fineness of the texture, as well as flowered, striped or checkered muslins, denominated from their patterns, are fabricated chiefly in the province of Dacca. The manufacture of the thinnest sort of that muslin is almost confined to that province; other kinds more closely woven are fabricated on the western side of the Delta of the Ganges; and a different sort, distinguished by a more rigid texture, does not seem to be limited to any particular district. Coarse muslins, in the shape of turbans, handkerchiefs, &c. are made in almost every province, and the northern parts of Benares afford both plain and flowered muslins, which are not ill adapted for common uses, though incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca.

Under the general name of calicoes are included various sorts of cloth, to which no English names have been as yet affixed, and are for the most part known in Europe by the Indian denominations. Cossaes, or khasahs, are fabricated in that part of Bengal which is situated north and east of the Ganges, between the Mahanuddy and Issamutty rivers, from Maulda to Berbazie; cloths similar in quality are made near Tanda in the Nabob of Oude's dominions. Baftaes are manufactured in the south-east corner of Bengal, near Luckipoor; and again on the western frontier of Benares, in the neighbourhood of Allahabad, and also in the province of Bahar, and some other districts. Sanaes are the chief fabric

of Orissa; some are made in the district of Midnapoor; some are imported from the contiguous countries. A similar cloth, under the same denomination, is wrought in the eastern parts of the province of Benares. Gurraes are the manufacture of Birboom; still coarser cloths, named gezis and gezinas, are woven in every district, but especially in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna. Other sorts of cloth, the names of which are less familiar to the English reader, are found in various districts.

Packthread is woven into sackcloth in many places, especially on the northern frontier of Bengal Proper, where it is employed as clothing by the mountaineers. A sort of canvass is made from cotton in the neighbourhood of Chittagong, Patna, and some other places, and blankets are made everywhere for common use. A coarse cotton cloth, dyed red, with cheap materials, is very generally used, and is chiefly manufactured in the centre of the Doab. Other sorts, dyed of various colours, but especially blue, are prepared for inland commerce, and for exportation by sea. Both fine and coarse calicoes receive a topical dying, with permanent and with fugitive colours, for common use, as well as for exportation. The province of Benares, the city of Patna, and the neighbourhood of Calcutta, are the principal seats of this manufacture of chintzes; which appears to be an original art in India, invented long since, and brought to a perfection not yet surpassed in Europe. Dimities of various kinds and damask linen, are made at Dacca, Patna, Taunda, and other places.

The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk and tafeta, both plain and flowered. Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the manufacture of Benares. Plain gauzes, adapted to the uses of the country, are woven in the western and southern corners of Bengal. The weaving of mixed goods made with silk and cotton, flourishes chiefly at Maulda, at Boglipoor, and at some towns in the district of Burdwan. A considerable quantity of filature silk is exported to the western parts of India; and much is sold at Mirzapoor, and passes thence to the Maharatta dominions, and central parts of Hindostan.

The tisser, a wild silk, is procured in abundance from countries bordering on Bengal, and from districts included within its limits. The wild silk worms are there found in several sorts of trees, which are common in the forests of Silhet, Assam, and the Deccan. The cones are large, but sparingly covered with silk; and, in colour and lustre, this species of silk is far inferior to that of the domesticated insect. Its cheapness renders it useful in the fabrication of coarse silks; the production of it may be increased by encouragement, and a very large quantity may be exported in the raw state at a moderate expense. It might be used in Europe for the preparation of silk goods, and mixed with wool

and cotton might form, as it now does in India, a beautiful and acceptable manufacture. The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of the Bahar province, under which head it, as also that of opium, will be found described.

The export of hides from Bengal may be greatly increased. It is calculated that, including buffaloes, these provinces contain about 50,000,000 of cattle. Until recently the demand was so small, that the currier often neglected to take the hide off the cattle that died a natural death. About 1797, some Europeans engaged in the tanning of leather and manufactory of boots and shoes, which, although not so strong and waterproof as the British, answer so well, that they have greatly reduced the importation. The natives also have arrived at considerable perfection in the fabrication of saddles, harness, and military accoutrements, and other articles of leather. Buffaloes hörns might also become an article of export, although so bulky and difficult of stowage. An excellent species of canvas is now manufactured in Calcutta, and sold much cheaper than that imported from Europe. Now that freight seems reduced to its minimum, corn, various kinds of rice, barley, and wheat, admit of exportation to Europe; as also rum, little inferior to that produced in Jamaica, together with liquorice and ginger, which are produced in Bengal, and might be exported to any extent.

It is extremely probable that annotto, madder, coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and even tea, would thrive in British India, which now comprehends every variety of climate. The plant from the seeds of which annotto is prepared, by separating the colouring matter which adheres to them, is already cultivated in Bengal, and coffee plants have thriven in botanical and private gardens. Madder is a native of the mountainous regions which border on Bengal, and this province possesses besides, many articles which might be brought into notice by a more extended commerce. Various drugs used in dying are exported to England, such as galls, turmeric, safflower, or carthamus; also myrobalans, which are here used in preference to galls. Roots of morinda, which dye a permanent colour on cotton, and blossoms of the nyctanthes, which give a permanent colour to silk.

Gum Arabic, and many other sorts of gums and resins for manufactures, are the produce of trees that grow spontaneously in Bengal, besides a multitude of medicinal drugs and gums, which abound in India and the adjacent countries. Vegetable oils, particularly linseed, might be supplied from these provinces, which are also adapted for the cultivation of flax. Tincal, brought from the high table land of Tibet, is among the imports to Bengal; and vegetable and mineral alkalies may hereafter become a considerable article of commerce. The

fossil alkali is found in abundance, and the woods of Bengal are capable of furnishing potash in large quantities. The preparation of sal ammoniac might be advantageously connected with the manufacture of saltpetre.

Besides the articles above enumerated, which have a reference principally to Bengal, India furnishes aloes, assafœtida, benzoin, camphor, cardamoms, cassia lignea, and cassia buds, arrangoes, cowries, China root, cinnabar, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, elephants' teeth, gums of various sorts, mother of pearl, pepper (quicksilver and rhubarb from China), sago, scammony, senna, and saffron, and might supply anise, coriander, cumin seeds, and many other objects which would occupy too much room to enumerate.

Of hemp and flax, with all their varieties, and also of the different substitutes for these articles, Bengal produces greater abundance than any other country. The true hemp is found in many places, but is little used by the natives, except for the seed oil as a medicine, and for an intoxicating ingredient, which is often mixed with the tobacco of the Hooka.

Formerly the exports to Europe, and to the United States of America, constituted the most considerable portion of Bengal commerce. The principal articles of export to Madras and the coast of Coromandel, are grain, pulse, sugar, saltpetre, molasses, ginger, long pepper, clarified butter, oil, silk, wrought and unwrought, muslins, spirits, and provisions.

After the Coromandel trade, the next in importance is that of the eastward and China, to which quarter the exports, besides opium, consist of grain, saltpetre, gunpowder, iron, fire arms, cotton, silk, and cotton piece goods. The trade to Bombay is next, consisting chiefly of grain, sugar, raw silk, some silk and cotton piece goods, saltpetre, ginger, long pepper, sacking, and hempen ropes.

To the Gulfs of Arabia and Persia Bengal sends grain, sugar, silk, and cotton piece goods. To Ava and the Birman empire, silk and cotton goods, fire arms, iron, nails, naval and military stores, and a variety of European goods.

Bengal imports from Europe metals of all sorts, wrought and unwrought, woollens of various kinds, naval and military stores, gold and silver coin and bullion, and almost every article of Europe, for the European part of the inhabitants.

The returns from Madras and the coast of Coromandel, consist of salt, redwood, some fine long cloth, izarees and chintzes. The balance due to Bengal is either settled by government bills, or remitted in specie. From the eastern islands, and the Malay coast, Bengal receives pepper, tin, wax, dammer, brimstone, gold dust, specie, betel nut, spices, benzoin, &c. From China, tutenague, sugar-candy, tea, allum, dammer, porcelain, lacquered ware, and a

variety of manufactured goods. From Manilla, indigo of a very fine quality, sugar, and sapan-wood, and specie.

From the Malabar coast are imported sandal-wood, coir rope, pepper, some cardamoms; and formerly cargoes of cotton-wool from Surat; the balance is generally sunk in the annual supplies with which Bengal furnishes Bombay. From Bombay are brought teak timber, elephants' teeth, lac, &c.

Owing to its admirable facility of transportation by water, the internal commerce of Bengal is very great; but as may be supposed in a country so productive and thickly populated, by far the most important interchange is in the article of rice. Of this grain in Bengal there is annually a great variation of price, the difference between the months of July and December, respectively, being very remarkable, and a source of great profit to opulent speculators, but to the indigent classes of cultivators of infinite damage. These last obtain rice for seed, and for the consumption of their families, either by a ruinous mortgage of the ensuing crop, or at an exorbitant rate of interest in the month of July, a period when the price is almost uniformly at the highest. In January, when the principal harvest is gathered, they are under the immediate necessity of selling the produce of their fields, to discharge the instalments then due, as they have neither means to convey the grain to a distant market, nor resources to enable them to postpone its sale until a more favourable period. They are thus compelled at once to glut a confined market, with the whole produce of their village, where the only purchasers are the rich speculators, who are consequently enabled to fix the prices at their own discretion. The evil is less felt in the vicinity of great towns or navigable rivers, nor does the Calcutta price essentially vary at those periods, which in the interior of the province are the cheapest and dearest periods of the year. An investigation made in 1815 tended to prove that the 10 years, from 1793 to 1803, were collectively cheaper than the ten years preceding and following, and that the price of rice and other articles has not experienced any permanent augmentation since the year 1761. Since 1793 the average prices of ploughing cattle have experienced a rise of 75 per cent, but the hire of coolies, or day labourers, in the country has not altered, being still 4¼ and 5 pons of cowries per day. The rise of wages paid to labourers by natives who cultivate their own lands, has been on the other hand considerable. In 1793 an able servant received about four rupees per annum, with his diet and clothing; whereas in 1814, they received six and eight rupees yearly, and in some situations even more. Near Calcutta, in harvest time, the usual price of 640 seers of paddy, or rice, in the husk, is five rupees five annas.

The internal navigation employs a great many vessels, and it is interesting to note, at a mart of great resort, the various constructions of boats assembled

there from different districts, each adapted to the nature of the rivers they generally traverse: the flat clinker-built vessels of the western districts, would be ill adapted to the wide and stormy navigation of the lower Ganges. The unwieldy bulk of the lofty boats used on the Ganges from Patna to Calcutta, would not suit the rapid and shallow rivers of the western districts, nor the narrow creeks which the vessels pass in the eastern navigation; and the low but deep boats of these districts, are not adapted to the shoals of the western rivers. In one navigation, wherein the vessels descend with the stream and return with the track rope, their construction consults neither aptitude for the sail nor for the oar. In the other, wherein boats, during the progress of the same voyage, are assisted by the stream of one creek, and opposed by the current of the next, as in the Sunderbunds, and under banks impracticable for the track rope, their principal dependance is on the oar, for a winding course in narrow passages permits no reliance on the sail. Often grounding in the shallows, vessels would be unsafe built with keels, and all Bengalese constructions want this addition so necessary for sailing.

These useful vessels are also very cheaply found. A circular board tied to a bamboo, forms the oar; a wooden triangular frame, loaded with some weighty substance, is the anchor; a few bamboos lashed together supply the mast; a cane of the same species serves as a yard for the sail, which is made of coarse sackcloth; some from the twine made of the stem of the rushy crotularia, or of the hemp hibiscus. The trees of the country afford resins to pay the vessels, and a platform of mats thatched with straw supplies the stead of a deck, to shelter the merchandize. The vessels are navigated with equal frugality; the boatmen receive little more than their food, which is most commonly furnished in grain, together with an inconsiderable allowance in money, for the purchase of salt, and for the supply of other petty wants. Forty years ago, in Major Rennell's valuable work, the whole number of boatmen employed on the rivers of Bengal and Bahar, was estimated at only 30,000; but probably some mistake must have occurred in the calculation, as they are certainly at present much nearer ten times that number. Besides this trade, most of them follow the petty occupations of agriculture, or fill up the interval of their employments as fishermen, and occasionally augment, either voluntarily or by compulsion, the bands of dacoits, or river pirates.

In the land carriage, the owners of the cattle are also the principal traffickers, oftener purchasing at one market to sell at another, than letting their cattle to resident merchants. They transport their merchandise on oxen trained to burthen, sometimes, but not frequently, on horses of the tattoo breed, and still more rarely on buffaloes. The latter, although more docile, are more sluggish

and slower travellers than the ox, and do not bear a much greater burthen, although much larger in size. They are also too fond of lying down in the water, which they have so often occasion to wade through, with their loads.

The highways throughout Bengal are not generally in a condition for distant journies on wheel carriages; but at a former and remote period the communication was better assisted. A magnificent road from the banks of the Goggra, or Dewa river, to the Brahmaputra, formed a safe and convenient communication at all seasons, in a length of 400 miles, through countries subject to annual inundation. Of the causeways and avenues which formed the road, some remains may yet be traced. At present the beaten pathway throughout Bengal directs the traveller, but no artificial road nor any accommodation, and in the rainy season his progress by land is altogether barred. The total decay of the public roads must be ascribed to the want of substantial and durable materials for their construction. The Bengal government have completed a road from Calcutta to Benares, which was principally done with the view of expediting military movements, but has at the same time proved a very general convenience.

The stations of the commercial residents, for the purchasing of the Company's investments, are the following:

Bauliah,	Dacca,	Malda,
Benares, }	Etaweh and Calpee,	Patna,
Goruckpoor, } One resident.	Golaghore, }	Radanagore,
Mow, }	Hurripaul, }	Rungpoor,
Azimgur, }	Jungeypoor,	Santipoor, and
Commercolly and Hurrial,	Keerpoy and Midnapoor,	Soonamooky.
Cossimbazar,	Luckipore and Chittagong,	

The commercial agents have in general an assistant in the civil service, and an establishment of native officers. The whole are subordinate to the Board of Trade, consisting of two members, besides a nominal president, a member of the Supreme Council.

The charges defrayed by the East India Company for the management of their trade in Bengal, at the presidency and subordinate stations, so far as the same can be distinguished from the civil and other charges respectively, was, in the year 1813, current rupees, 1,426,559.

Custom Houses for the collection of the duties on the trade of the interior are established at

Agra,	Benares,	Dacca,	Mirzapoor,
Allahabad,	Calcutta,	Furruckabad,	Moorshedabad, and
Balasore,	Caunpoor,	Ghazipoor,	Patna.
Bareily,	Chittagong,	Hooghly,	

Salt agencies, for the manufacture of that article on government account, are established at

Bulwah and Chittagong, Hidjellee, and
Cuttack, Tumlook.
24 Pergunnahs and Roymungul,

As yet Bengal may be said to have but one port of export, which is Calcutta; although square rigged vessels of small size occasionally load rice in some of the Sunderbund rivers, and vessels of large dimensions are built at, and sail from the town of Islamabad, the capital of Chittagong. But the aggregate is insignificant compared with the commerce of the great metropolis, under which head some further details will be found.

The original manner in which all internal commerce seems to have been conducted in Bengal, was at hauts or open markets, and this practice is still very prevalent. These hauts are held on certain days only, and are resorted to by petty venders and traders, who wish to buy or sell, and dispose of their commodities by retail. They are usually established in open plains, where a flag is erected, to the vicinity of which, the farmer brings the produce of his lands, the mechanic that of his work shop, and the fisherman of his net. To carry on these operations a space of ground is reserved, divided by narrow paths into several plots like the parterres of an old garden, each plot being occupied by two or three venders, and the whole transacted in the open air. Duties were formerly levied at each market by the proprietor of the land, who was consequently interested in preserving peace, and seeing justice done, yet a great majority exercised such rapacity, that their places of sale were deserted. Great advantage resulted from the abolition of these imposts, the markets being now free and placed under the protection of the nearest police officer; but he is unable to attend every where, and as these hauts are at present constituted, there is certainly no efficient legal superintendence, either to settle disputes, confiscate fraudulent weights and measures, or to prevent extortions, both by the zemindars, and the understrappers of the police. On the festivals of Hindoo Gods, and of persons reputed saints by the Mahommedans, great numbers of persons assemble at spots esteemed peculiarly sacred, and traders embrace these opportunities of finding a market for their goods, in supplying the wants of the multitude.

In Bengal, a bazar is a daily market where things in common use are regularly sold, and it is not unusual to have them in a haut, where a number of petty venders, besides the established shop-keepers frequent them. In gunges, or bunders, the chief commodities sold are grain and the necessaries of life, and they often include bazars and hauts, where the articles are sold by retail, and in great variety. It is a very common termination of the names of towns in

Bengal, and some of the adjacent provinces, and generally restricted to places where there is water carriage; but the name is frequently much misapplied, and many places are called gunge or bunder, where no merchant resides, and which have long lost their importance, if they had ever attained any, being unable to supply the traveller with the common necessaries of life. Dokan, a shop, and dokandar, a shop keeper, are Persian words, but until the arrival of the Mahommedans such establishments were probably very rare, or did not exist at all in Bengal, where a vender sitting in the open air surrounded by his goods was the original native manner of selling commodities, and in many parts of the country the number of shops is still remarkably small.

Out of Calcutta the usual currency of Bengal is silver and cowries; gold seldom appears, and copper has never been introduced. Some years ago gold in the provincial tracts was abundant, but has since become very scarce, which is a fortunate result for the poor, who were greatly cheated in this article by the money changers. The most common silver currency is the new milled coinage of Calcutta, of which however a considerable portion becomes speedily depreciated. In the country there is still a considerable number of the old unmilled coinage, which is subjected to a heavy batta or exchange; but there all minor transactions, and even some of considerable magnitude, are settled by cowries, which have for some years been very cheap.

Throughout the whole province there is no uniformity of weights and measures, which not only vary in almost every market, but are different in the same market for different kinds of goods. There are even different weights for the same species; rice being frequently sold by one weight, and bought by another. Neither are there any stamps on the weights, which are usually bits of stone, and admit of the most gross deception, as do also the scales used in weighing, which are so clumsily formed, that a dextrous person can easily impose on the unwary, to which he is generally sufficiently disposed by nature. These scales are never suspended but merely held in the hand, which besides limiting the weight to an inconsiderable amount, and of course occupying much time, permits the exercise of considerable slight of hand on the part of the vender. There is no denomination of weight greater than a maund, which is subdivided into 40 seers. In Bengal a factory maund weighs 74 pounds, 10 ounces, and a factory seer 1 pound 13 ounces; but the Bengal bazar maund is ten per cent. heavier, and equals 82 pounds 2 ounces avoirdupois.

Liquids are also sold by the seer or maund, that is by measures supposed to contain these weights, which although not quite so bad as the grain measures, are still very defective. The grain measures are of basket work, in the form of a hemisphere, and are supposed when heaped to contain a certain weight of rice in the husk, against which there are innumerable objections. In those parts of

Bengal where articles of consumption are the cheapest, the following are nearly the prices. Europeans of course pay much more.

Rice, per maund, (80 lbs)	½ rupee	*Live Stock.*	
Barley . . ditto . .	¼	A milch cow . .	5 rupees
Pease . . ditto . .	5/16	A good bullock .	8
Salt . . ditto . .	3	A bull	4
Mustard oil ditto . .	5	A milch buffaloe .	20
Ghee . . ditto . .	10	A ram	¾
Coarse sugar ditto . .	4	A common sheep	¼
Treacle . ditto . .	1½	A he goat . . .	½
Milk . . ditto . .	¾	A milch goat .	1
		A kid or lamb .	¼
		30 fowls . . .	1
		10 ducks . . .	1

During the Hindoo government, bankers, or dealers in money, were probably of small importance and their rank low; but on the Mahommedan conquest, commerce seems to have increased, and, to facilitate its operations, bankers were introduced from the west of India. In the late Mahommedan government the revenue was remitted to Moorshedabad through these bankers. This branch of profit they have now lost in the provincial parts, and are chiefly employed by landholders in keeping their rents, paying the revenue, and in conveying the surplus to such as reside at a distance. They also occasionally advance to landlords who are in arrears for the land revenue. On this loan they take one per cent. per month, but exact much more under the name of profit, which is deducted from the principal at the time the loan is granted.

Potdars, or money changers, are a very numerous class, but many of them having no shop sit in the open market with heaps of cowries placed before them. In the more rural quarters the money changer goes to market with a bag of cowries on his head, or if a rich man, with a loaded ox, which if strong may carry to the value of 150 rupees. All the early part of the market he sells cowries for silver to the people who wish to purchase goods, and in the evening the various hucksters bring back their cowries and exchange them for silver. In the morning the money changer usually gives 5760 cowries for a rupee, and in the evening he gives a rupee for 5920 cowries, which is a profit of one thirty-sixth part on every good mint rupee, besides a fluctuating batta or exchange on all others. In Calcutta cowries are reckoned thus:—

4 cowries	1 gunda.
20 gundas	1 pon.
32 pons	1 current rupee 2*s*. (2,560 cowries.)

It is also customary with the money changers to advance cowries to all ser-

vants who have monthly wages, and at the end of the month when the wages become due, they return the loan in silver; for all this class, if trusted, anticipate their income. To these improvident persons the money changer gives only 70 pons of cowries for his rupee, so that he realizes four seventy-fourths per month for the use of the money, but occasionally he loses his principal. Labourers among the natives receive their daily pay in cowries, the daily markets, even of Europeans, are made with these shells, they are distributed in alms, used on all occasions, and are in fact an excellent circulating medium, and proof of cheapness in whatever country they form the common currency. The natives of course become well acquainted with their quality, and a Bengalese huckster refuses as stoutly a cowry with a hole in it, as in England a shopkeeper does a Birmingham shilling.—*(Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Tennant, Ward, W. B. Bayley, Lambert, &c. &c. &c.)*

COMMERCE.

EXTERNAL COMMERCE of BENGAL for 1800—1801.

1800—1801.	IMPORTS TO BENGAL.					EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.				
	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.
London	30	16,939	4,098,360	374,142	4,472,502	25	14,675	8,487,336	„	8,487,336
Copenhagen	2	680	446,806	575,714	1,022,520	3	2,200	714,825	„	714,825
Lisbon	2	373	263,989	705,330	969,319	4	2,870	2,057,936	„	2,057,936
Foreign Europe	4	1,053	710,795	1,281,044	1,991,839	7	5,070	2,772,761	„	2,772,761
America	17	5,491	899,977	4,075,867	4,975,844	27	8,150	6,106,733	„	6,106,733
Malabar	3	940	31,564	„	31,564	18	7,969	1,408,175	„	1,408,175
Coromandel	199	43,413	813,391	9,155	822,546	163	30,467	2,480,351	„	2,480,351
Sumatra	6	1,986	200,712	7,000	207,712	10	3,385	348,036	„	348,036
British Asia	208	46,339	1,045,667	16,155	1,061,822	191	41,821	4,236,562	„	4,236,562
Gulfs of Persia and Arabia	6	2,650	344,175	266,318	610,493	8	3,600	406,031	„	406,031
Manilla	1	200	„	„	„	2	375	597,775	„	597,775
Penang, and Eastward	35	9,784	1,403,097	845,091	2,248,188	30	7,574	2,570,640	„	2,570,640
China	5	1,650	1,732,693	407,258	2,139,951	5	1,050	2,430,008	„	2,430,008
Pegu	21	5,450	617,010	91,755	708,765	14	3,200	393,782	„	393,782
Foreign Asia	68	19,734	4,096,975	1,610,422	5,707,397	59	15,799	6,396,236	„	6,396,236
Cape of Good Hope	5	2,364	70,157	„	70,157	„	„	10,500	„	10,500
New South Wales	5	1,962	3,001	„	3,001	1	100	20,011	„	20,011
Maldives Islands	33	4,950	77,836	„	77,836	33	4,950	53,677	„	53,677
Various parts	45	9,556	150,994	„	150,994	34	5,050	84,188	„	84,188
Total Foreign Asia	113	29,290	4,247,969	1,610,422	5,858,391	93	20,849	6,480,424	„	6,480,424
Total Private Trade	372	99,112	11,002,768	7,357,630	18,360,398	343	90,565	28,083,816	„	28,083,816
Company's Trade										

EXTERNAL COMMERCE OF BENGAL for 1810—1811.

1810—1811.	IMPORTS TO BENGAL.					EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.				
	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.
London	26	16,292	3,739,302	127,922	3,867,224	24	14,488	7,087,766	„	7,087,766
Copenhagen	„	„	13,464	„	13,464	„	„	„	„	„
Lisbon and Rio Janeiro	4	1,350	270,879	1,623,206	1,894,085	6	2,213	1,462,230	„	1,462,230
Foreign Europe	4	1,350	284,343	1,623,206	1,907,549	6	2,213	1,462,230	„	1,462,230
America	17	5,067	258,289	6,513,605	6,771,894	17	4,953	6,836,365	„	6,836,365
Malabar	6	2,480	391,565	„	391,565	17	4,937	2,238,699	„	2,238,699
Coromandel	330	54,252	857,993	142,270	1,000,463	307	46,365	1,123,456	„	1,123,456
Sumatra	10	2,390	177,977	457,907	635,884	6	1,055	327,614	„	327,614
Ceylon	6	900	62,623	„	62,623	6	900	17,756	„	17,756
British Asia	352	60,022	1,490,158	600,377	2,090,535	336	53,257	3,707,525	„	3,707,525
Gulfs of Persia and Arabia	20	8,009	540,490	399,520	940,010	12	4,238	2,190,208	„	2,190,208
Manilla	4	1,270	603,011	2,366,931	2,969,942	3	1,110	1,270,541	„	1,270,541
Penang and Eastward	29	8,211	1,329,894	1,960,753	3,290,647	29	7,527	3,242,198	„	3,242,198
China	12	6,428	1,759,464	4,824,492	6,583,956	11	5,605	7,372,295	„	7,372,295
Pegu	20	4,115	184,129	„	184,129	9	1,970	90,182	„	90,182
Foreign Asia	85	28,033	4,416,988	9,551,696	13,968,684	64	20,450	14,165,424	„	14,165,424
Mauritius	19	8,623	109,488	25,200	134,688	2	5,093	572,807	„	572,807
Cape of Good Hope	1	430	„	„	„	1	125	4,240	„	4,240
New South Wales	6	2,097	46,562	41,209	87,771	10	1,680	276,289	„	276,289
Maldives Islands	25	3,750	139,747	„	139,747	25	3,750	94,387	„	94,387
Various places	51	14,900	295,797	66,409	362,206	100	31,738	947,723	„	947,723
Total Foreign Asia	136	42,933	4,712,785	9,618,105	14,330,890	164	52,188	15,113,147	„	15,113,147
Total Private Trade	536	125,911	10,484,877	18,483,215	28,968,092	547	127,099	34,207,033	„	34,207,033
Company's Trade										

EXTERNAL COMMERCE OF BENGAL for 1815—1816.

1815—1816.	IMPORTS TO BENGAL.					EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.				
	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Ships.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	No.	Tons.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.	Sicca Rps.
London	52	30,717	5,752,886	1,142,596	6,895,482	51	30,954	16,444,208	„	16,444,208
Copenhagen	1	300	8,410	„	8,410	1	300	31,964	„	31,964
Lisbon	7	3,780	210,432	3,482,400	3,692,832	5	3,000	2,728,922	„	2,728,922
Brazils	4	1,095	178,241	1,150,273	1,328,514	5	1,845	1,678,122	„	1,678,122
Cadiz	1	604	25,542	675,000	700,542	1	604	277,010	„	277,010
Russia	2	829	„	„	„	2	829	214,400	„	214,400
Foreign Europe	15	6,608	422,625	5,307,673	5,730,298	14	6,578	4,930,418	„	4,930,418
America	22	7,225	222,768	4,793,886	5,016,654	19	6,311	4,421,435	„	4,421,435
Malabar and Canara	16	6,168	559,092	256,632	815,724	19	6,426	3,146,361	„	3,146,361
Coromandel	131	30,277	842,867	1,159,043	2,001,910	171	25,687	1,427,372	„	1,427,372
Sumatra	11	2,905	262,677	387,913	650,590	9	2,976	469,900	4,500	474,400
Ceylon	16	3,133	113,910	45,000	158,910	16	3,304	120,448	„	120,448
British India	224	42,483	1,778,546	1,848,588	3,627,134	215	38,393	5,164,081	4,500	5,168,581
Persian and Arabian Gulfs	20	7,488	338,696	1,567,151	1,905,847	21	8,104	3,606,021	„	3,606,021
Manilla	3	424	237,743	516,816	754,559	1	120	63,110	„	63,110
Penang and Eastward	22	4,925	985,590	289,253	1,274,843	19	3,985	2,172,720	11,250	2,183,970
China	15	5,348	1,803,691	3,629,618	5,433,309	25	13,068	9,037,912	„	9,037,912
Pegu	36	7,685	393,362	178,295	571,657	19	2,990	469,038	„	469,038
Java	18	6,379	765,627	45,675	811,302	15	4,258	1,167,464	„	1,167,464
Amboyna	1	203	13,329	„	13,329	„	„	34,968	„	34,968
Foreign Asia	115	32,452	4,538,038	6,226,808	10,764,846	100	32,525	16,551,233	11,250	16,562,483
Mauritius	24	5,746	339,510	128,195	467,705	43	10,391	1,841,998	„	1,841,998
Cape of Good Hope	4	1,535	15,537	„	15,537	9	3,380	297,580	„	297,580
Maldives Isles	28	4,200	148,259	„	148,259	30	4,900	99,101	„	99,101
New South Wales	4	645	27,629	2,000	29,629	8	1,117	222,312	„	222,312
Various places	60	11,926	530,935	130,195	661,130	90	19,788	2,460,991	„	2,460,991
Total Foreign Asia	175	44,378	5,068,973	6,357,003	11,425,976	190	52,313	19,012,224	11,250	19,023,474
Total Private Trade	488	131,411	13,245,798	19,449,746	32,695,544	489	134,549	49,972,366	15,750	49,988,116
Company's Trade										

Export of Cotton from Calcutta and Bombay, in the course of 1818.

To	From Calcutta.	From Bombay.	Total Bales of 300lbs. weight.	Value in Sicca Rupees.	
England	178,020	128,512	306,532	24,522,560	
The Continent	40,642	40,109	80,751	6,460,080	
America	41,210	42,289	84,199	6,735,920	
China	76,967	112,173	189,173	15,133,840	
	336,848	323,807	660,655	52,852,400	£6,606,550

CHAPTER IV.

POPULATION OF THE PROVINCE, DISTRICTS AND TOWNS.

THE inhabitants of Bengal are numerous in proportion to the tillage and manufactures that employ their industry, and under the British government the population has certainly undergone a progressive increase, which still continues, and surpasses that of England in the best cultivated districts, the situation of all classes being highly favourable to the propagation of the species. It has, however, occasionally met with checks, as happened in 1770, when it is supposed that nearly one fifth of the inhabitants perished by famine. In 1784, the same calamity prevailed, but in a much less degree; in 1787, many lives were lost in the eastern provinces by inundation, and in 1788 by a partial scarcity; but since the period last mentioned, famine and even scarcity have been wholly unknown.

Various estimates of the total population have been made at different times; but until 1801, during the administration of the Marquis Wellesley, no approach to actual investigation was ever attempted. An undertaking of this description requires to be conducted with peculiar delicacy, the natives in general being averse to even the appearance of innovation, and to any new arrangement which tends to bring them more immediately under the observation of the magistrate, or to impose on them either additional duties or expense. Neither can accurate returns be expected from the zemindars who are jealous of the views and intentions of the government. Different indirect expedients have in consequence been resorted to; such as, 1st a computation from the quantity of salt consumed, which being a monopoly can be ascertained with tolerable precision.

2d. The number of ploughs required to cultivate the extent of land occupied, allowing one for each 15 Calcutta begahs, or five acres, and five persons for each plough, adding afterwards the other classes of society.

3d. A list called Khana Shumari, containing a statement of the number of houses, families, tradesmen, castes, ploughs, looms, tanks, and other public works, civil and religious, within the jurisdiction of the magistrate, which is usually kept under all native governments, but which is frequently a doubtful authority.

4th. From an actual enumeration of houses, as effected in 1814 by Mr. Bayley, then judge and magistrate of Burdwan, as will be found detailed under the description of that district. In prosecution of this object 98 towns and villages were selected for examination, situated in Burdwan, Hooghly, Midnapoor, Birboom, and the Jungle Mahals. The returns when received were rigidly ex-

amined, and the places selected differed in size, opulence, and other circumstances. Some were market towns, or possessed established manufactures; some principally inhabited by Hindoos, others by Mahommedans; some were heavily assessed, while others were rent free; the average therefore may safely be considered as applicable to the Bengal province generally. The result of this investigation gave 82,285 females, to 81,149 males. The proportion of persons allowed to a house was $5\frac{1}{2}$; a ratio probably less than the real number, as it is well known that many of the dwellings of the more wealthy inhabitants include several distinct buildings, huts, or out-offices, within the same inclosure, yet in the estimate were only reckoned as one. We shall now proceed to give the different estimates, deduced by their authors from the best documents existing at the time of their formation, but which there is great reason to suppose, from subsequent research, were all much under the mark.

In 1772, Lord Clive computed the population of the British provinces, consisting then of Bengal and Bahar at 20,000,000 of persons.

In 1789, Sir William Jones reckoned them at 24,000,000.

In 1793, Mr. Colebrooke was decidedly of opinion after mature consideration, that including Benares they could not be reckoned at less than 27,000,000, which corroborates Sir William Jones's calculation. Another estimate was made in 1790, but thought unworthy of consideration, which carried the population so high as 32,987,000; yet was probably the most correct.

In 1801, by the directions of the Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-General, the Board of Revenue in Bengal circulated various questions, on statistical subjects, to the magistrates and collectors of the different divisions, with the view of ascertaining the population and resources of their respective districts. The returns to these were, with some valuable exceptions, rather hastily made, and without due consideration of the subject; but it is remarkable that all these public functionaries, either from the fear of appearing to exaggerate, or from the novelty of the subject, kept greatly within the real amount; which we shall exemplify by a comparison of their estimates, with others subsequently made, under more favourable circumstances, by Dr. Francis Buchanan. In 1807, 1808, and 1809, this gentleman was deputed by government to survey and report on the Bengal districts of Rungpoor, Dinagepoor, and Purneah, in the prosecution of which the public officers of government (European and native) were directed to render him every assistance, and to furnish him with every requisite record and document. The results of his survey were most voluminous, and minute reports, on the resources and actual condition of each district, accompanied by statistical tables of the most elaborate description, comprehending not only the

population of the whole, but of every separate police subdivision and town of any importance or magnitude; and on the whole he was of opinion, that the total amount of the population, as given in his tables, was not materially wrong, although they might err in particular instances. Dr. Buchanan was selected by government on account of the well-earned reputation he had already obtained for general knowledge, soundness of judgment, and habits of laborious research, and certainly no other person of equal abilities, with the exception of Mr. Bayley, ever directed so much attention to this particular object, or executed it with so many collateral advantages. The result of his investigation, however, gives so enormous a population, when compared with prior estimates, as utterly to astonish the mind, yet his conclusions succeeded a most severe examination of all the existing circumstances; while the others were, mostly, after very superficial consideration; and some evidently the effusions of mere fancy and conjecture. When we add to this, that Mr. Bayley's subsequent investigation of the population of Burdwan, in 1814, tended completely to corroborate Dr. Buchanan's calculations, we must think them entitled to a decided preference. To render the subject more intelligible, we subjoin the respective estimates of the magistrate, collector and Dr. Francis Buchanan.

Rungpoor District.	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,000,000 inhabitants.
The Collector's ditto, 1801	400,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1809 . . .	2,735,000
Dinagepoor District.	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	700,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,000,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1808 . . .	3,000,000
Purneah District.	
The Magistrate's estimate, 1801	1,400,000
The Collector's ditto, 1801	1,450,000
Dr. Francis Buchanan's ditto, 1810	2,900,000

We now proceed to give a detailed statement of the number of inhabitants in Bengal, Bahar, and Benares, extracted from the returns of the magistrates and collectors in 1801, with the exception of the three districts above mentioned, and Boglipoor and Bahar, which are taken from Dr. Buchanan's Statistical Tables, and of Burdwan from Mr. Bayley, in the Asiatic Researches. It will immediately strike the reader that if the population of the other districts be as much underrated as those surveyed by Dr. Buchanan and Mr. Bayley, great as the sum total is, it would nearly admit of being doubled.

Population of the Province of Bengal.		Inhabitants.
The 24 Pergunnahs, including Calcutta, 1801		1,625,000
Midnapoor district, 1801		1,500,000
Hooghly district, 1801		1,000,000
Burdwan district, 1814		1,450,000
Jessore district, 1801		1,200,000
Nuddea district, 1801		800,000
		7,575,000
Dacca Jelalpoor district, and the city, 1801	1,140,000	
Backergunge district, 1801	926,000	
Chittagong district, 1801	1,200,000	
Tiperah district, 1801	750,000	
Mymunsingh district, 1801	1,360,000	
Silhet district, 1801	500,000	
		5,876,000
Moorshedabad district and city, 1801	1,020,000	
Birboom district, 1801	700,000	
Rajshahy district, 1801	1,500,000	
Rungpoor district, 1809	2,735,000	
Dinagepoor, 1808	3,000,000	
Purneah district, 1810	2,900,000	
		11,855,000
Total Bengal		25,306,000
Bahar Province.		
Boglipoor district, 1811	2,755,150	
Bahar district, 1812	2,019,000	
Sarun district, 1801	1,200,000	
Shahabad district, 1801	2,000,000	
Tirhoot district, 1801	2,000,000	
Ramghur, district, by estimate	1,000,000	
		10,974,150
Benares province, 1801		3,000,000
Containing 162,000 square miles—Total old provinces		39,679,150

Bengal comprehends within its geographical limits, three very large cities, Calcutta, Dacca, and Moorshedabad, besides many prosperous inland trading towns, such as Hooghly, Serajegunge, Bogwangola, Cossimbazar, each containing a great population, but of which no authentic returns have been as yet discovered. The following are the number of inhabitants reported on very

probable grounds to be resident in the cities and towns respectively to which the numbers are attached:

Calcutta . .	500,000	Chandernagore	41,377	Narraingunge	20,000
Dacca . .	200,000	Purneah . .	33,000	Maulda . .	18,000
Moorshedabad	150,000	Rajamahal .	30,000	Gour . . .	18,000
Burdwan .	53,900	Dinagepoor .	28,000	Chandercona	18,145

The small villages of from 100 to 500 are almost incredibly numerous, and in some parts of the country form a chain of many miles along the banks of the rivers, similar to what we find described in the most populous parts of the Chinese empire. While passing them by the inland navigation it is pleasing to view the cheerful bustle and crowded population by land and water; men, old women, children, birds, and beasts, all mixed and intimate, evincing a sense of security, and appearance of happiness, seen in no part of India beyond the Company's territories. Nor have the natives of Bengal any real evils to complain of, except such as originate from their own propensity to litigation, and from the occasional predatory visits of gang robbers and river pirates. To protect them from the last, the exertions of the government, and of their servants in the magistracy, have been most strenuous, and continued with such persevering and increasing energy, that there is at last a prospect of this most desirable object being accomplished. With respect to the first, the Bengalese are from characteristic peculiarity, particularly prone to legal disputation, and, politically pacific, seem socially and domestically martial. Among them wars seem frittered into law, and the ferocious passions dwarfed down to the bickering and snarling of the hut and village. In this vociferation they are greatly assisted by the women, who after the age of thirty, generally turn termagants, and become agitated by a furious spirit of discord, which they vent in such loud, virulent, and indecent railings, as are no where else to be paralleled.

We shall now proceed to describe the city of Calcutta, and also the settlements belonging to the French, Dutch, and Danes, which in its vicinity are scattered along the banks of the Hooghly branch of the Ganges.—*(Public documents, manuscript and printed, F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, W. B. Bayley, &c. &c. &c.)*

CALCUTTA *(Calicata).*

This city is situated about 100 miles from the sea, on the east side of the western branch of the Ganges, named by Europeans the Hooghly, or Calcutta river, but by the natives, the Bhagirathi, or true Ganges, and considered by them peculiarly holy. Fort William, its citadel, stands in lat. 22° 23′ N. long. 88° 28′ E.

The locality of this capital is not fortunate, for it has extensive muddy lakes, and an immense forest close to it, and was at first deemed scarcely less

unhealthy than Batavia, which it resembled in being placed in a flat and marshy country. The English, it has been remarked, have been more inattentive to the local advantages of situation than the French, who have always in India selected better stations for founding their foreign settlements. The jungle has since been cleared away to a certain distance, the streets properly drained, and the ponds filled up; by which a vast surface of stagnant water has been removed, but the air of the town is still much affected by the vicinity of the Sunderbunds. At high water, the river is here a full mile in breadth, but during ebb tide, the opposite shore exposes a long range of dry sand banks. On approaching Calcutta from the sea, a stranger is much struck with its magnificent appearance; the elegant villas on each side of the river, the Company's botanic gardens, the spires of the churches, temples, and minarets, and the strong and regular citadel of Fort William. It exhibited a very different appearance in 1717, of which the following is a correct description.

The present town was then a village, appertaining to the district of Nuddea, the houses of which were scattered about in clusters of 10 or 12 each, and the inhabitants chiefly husbandmen. A forest existed in the south of Chandpaul Ghaut, which was afterwards by degrees removed. Between Kidderpoor and the forest, were two villages, whose inhabitants were invited to settle in Calcutta, by the ancient family of the Seats, who were at that time merchants of great note, and very instrumental in bringing Calcutta into the form of a town. Fort William and the esplanade are the site where this forest, and the two villages above mentioned formerly stood. In 1810, there were still inhabitants alive, who could recollect a creek, which extended from Chandpaul Ghaut to Balliaghaut; and who said, that the drain before the government house is where it took its course. To the south of the Beytakhana there is still a ditch, which shews evident traces of the continuation of this creek. In 1717, there was a small village, consisting of straggling houses, surrounded by puddles of water, where now stand the elegant houses at Chouringhee; and Calcutta may, at this period, be described as extending to Chitpore bridge, but the intervening space consisted of ground covered with jungle. In 1742, a ditch was dug round a considerable portion of the boundaries of Calcutta, to prevent the incursions of the Maharattas; and it appears from Orme's History of the War in Bengal, that at the time of its capture in 1756, there were about 70 houses in the town belonging to the English. What are now called the esplanade, the site of Fort William and Chouringhee, were, so late as 1756, a complete jungle, interspersed with huts, and small pieces of grazing and arable land.

In 1752, the town of Calcutta (as described by Mr. Holwell) was divided into four principal districts, under the denominations of Dee Calcutta, Gorindpoor,

Sootanutty, and Bazar Calcutta, to each of which, and to the great bazar a distinct cutcherry was appropriated. These four districts comprehended 7,205 begahs of land, and contained (exclusive of mosques, temples, &c. &c.) 9,451 houses. Within the Company's bounds, there was also land then possessed by independent proprietors, amounting to 3,050 begahs, and containing 5,267 houses; which, added to those under the Company's protection, made the whole amount to 14,718 houses, on 10,255 begahs (at 30 begahs to 11 acres) equal to 3,790 English acres. For the sake of distinction, Mr. Holwell calls the proprietors of the above 14,718 houses, principal tenants, or holders of leases, who had their lodgers or under tenants within their respective limits, estimated in the ratio of five under tenants to each principal lease holder, who possessed one begah of land. If, therefore, 8,522, the exact number of begahs paying rent, be multiplied by 6, the number of houses then in Calcutta would be 51,132, which sum being multiplied by 8 inhabitants for each house (which Mr. Holwell calls a moderate number), the result would give a total of 409,056 constant inhabitants, without reckoning the multitude that were daily coming and going.

The modern town of Calcutta extends along the east side of the river above six miles, but the breadth varies very much at different places. The esplanade between the town and Fort William leaves a grand opening, along the edge of which is placed the new government house, erected by the Marquis Wellesley, and continued on in a line with this edifice, is a range of magnificent houses ornamented with spacious verandahs. Chouringhee, formerly a collection of native huts, is now an entire village of palaces, and extends for a considerable distance into the country. The architecture of the houses is Grecian, which does not appear the best adapted for the country or climate, as the pillars of the verandahs are too much elevated, to keep out the sun during the morning and evening; although at both these times, especially the latter, the heat is excessive; and in the wet season it is deluged by the rain. Perhaps a more confined Hindoo style of building, although less ornamental, might be found of more practical comfort. The principal square extends about 500 yards each way, and contains in the centre an extensive tank, surrounded by a handsome wall and railing, and having a gradation of steps to the bottom, which is 60 feet from the top of its banks. A range of indifferent looking houses, known by the name of the writers buildings, occupies one side of the square, and near to it on the site of the old fort, taken by Seraje ud Dowlah, in 1757, is a custom house, and several other handsome buildings. The black hole is now part of a warehouse, and filled with merchandize. A monument is erected facing the gate, to commemorate the unfortunate persons who there perished; but it has been

struck by lightening, and is itself going fast to decay. A quay has been erected in front of the custom house, which promises to be a great convenience, and it would be a still greater were the embankment extended along the whole face of the town next the river. In 1818, to make room for some improvements in the neighbourhood of Tank Square, the remaining portion of the wall of the old fort was removed, on which occasion its solid and substantial fabric, both as to brick and mortar, indicated a falling off in the art of building in India.

The government house is the most remarkable public edifice in Calcutta. The lower story forms a rustic basement, with arcades to the building, which is Ionic. On the north side there is a flight of steps, under which carriages drive to the entrance; and, on the south there is a circular colonade, with a dome. The four wings, one at each corner of the building, are connected with it by circular passages, so long as to secure their enjoying the air all round, from whichever quarter the wind blows. These wings contain all the private apartments; and in the north-east corner is the council room, decorated like other public rooms with portraits. The centre of the building contains two uncommonly fine rooms: the lowest is paved with dark grey marble, and supported by doric columns, chunamed, resembling marble. Above this hall is the ball-room, floored with dark polished wood, and supported by Ionic pillars. Both rooms are lighted by a profusion of cut glass lustres, suspended from the painted cieling, where an excellent taste is displayed in the decorations.

Besides the government house, the other public buildings are a town house, the court of justice, and two churches of the established religion, one of which makes a very handsome appearance, but the other is a plain building. There are also churches for the Portugueze Catholics, another of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian church, and many small Hindoo temples, and Mahommedan mosques. The hospital and jail are to the south of the town. The botanic garden is beautifully situated on the west bank of the river, and gives the name of Garden Reach to a bend of the Hooghly. Above the garden there is an extensive teak plantation, which is not a native of this part of India, but which thrives well here. There is a private dock yard opposite to Fort William, and another one mile below it, on the same side of the river.

The black town extends along the river to the north, and exhibits a remarkable contrast to the part inhabited by Europeans. Persons who have only seen the latter (which is probably the case of a great many individuals) have little conception of the remainder of the city; but those, who have been led there by their public or private avocations, will bear testimony to the wretched condition of at least six in eight parts of this externally magnificent city. The streets here are narrow, dirty, and unpaved; the houses of two stories are of brick, with

flat terraced roofs; but the great majority are mud cottages, covered with small tiles, with side walls of mats, bamboos, and other combustible materials, the whole within and without swarming with population. Fires, as may be inferred from the construction, are of frequent occurrence; but do not in the least affect the European quarter, which, from the mode of building, is quite incombustible. In this division the houses stand detached from each other, within a space enclosed by walls, the general approach being by a flight of steps under a large verandah, their whole appearance being uncommonly elegant and respectable. Although brick, mortar, and wood, are not scarce in Calcutta, yet the money sunk in building a house is very considerable; and, being a perishable commodity, requiring constant repair, house rent is proportionally high. The white ants are also so destructive and rapid in their operations, that sometimes every beam in a house may be completely excavated internally, while outwardly it appears perfectly sound.

In Calcutta, the greater number of the bazars are the property of individuals, who pay a certain assessment to government, fixed in perpetuity, or for a long period of years. The total number of this description is 13, and their collective assessment 10,050 rupees. Three of them, denominated from the persons who established them, Tiretta's bazar, Sherburne's bazar, and Short's bazar, are held under grants from government for 99 years; the two former assessed with 500 rupees per annum; the last with 832 rupees. These grants were made to encourage the construction of substantial buildings, adapted for the convenience of the market dealers in the different parts of the town. Six other bazars, erected on ground belonging to the government, are let in farm.

Fort William stands about a quarter of a mile below the town, and is superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India. It is of an octagon form, five of the faces being regular, while the forms of the other three next the river, are according to the local circumstances. As no approach by land is to be apprehended on this side, the river coming up to the glacis, it was merely necessary to guard against attack by water, by providing a great superiority of fire, which purpose has been attained by giving the citadel towards the water the form of a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the course of the river. From these faces the guns continue to bear upon the objects, till they approach very near to the city, when they would receive the fire of the batteries parallel to the river. This part is likewise defended by adjoining bastions, and a counter-guard which covers them.

The five regular sides are towards the land; the bastions have all very salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks, extremely spacious, and an inverse double flank at the height of the berme. This double flank would be an

excellent defence, and would serve to retard the passages of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed. The orillon preserves it from the effect of ricochet shot, and it is not to be seen from any parallel. The berme, opposite to the curtain, serves as a road to it, and contributes to the defence of the ditch like a fausse-bray.

The ditch is dry, with a cunette in the middle, which receives the water of the river by means of two sluices that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered-way are excellent, every curtain is covered with a large half moon, without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt, but the faces mount 13 pieces of heavy artillery each; thus giving to the defence of these ravelins, a fire of 26 guns. The demi-bastions, which terminate the five regular fronts on each side, are covered by a counterguard, of which the faces, like the half moons, are pierced with 13 embrasures. These counterguards are connected with two redoubts, constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles; the whole is faced and palisadoed with care, kept in admirable condition, and capable of making a vigorous defence against any army, however formidable. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale; and the angles of the half moons being extremely acute, project a great way, so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and capable of taking the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach.

This citadel was commenced by Lord Clive soon after the battle of Plassey, and was intended by him to be complete in every respect, but it has since been discovered, that it is erected on too extensive a scale to answer the purpose for which it was intended, that of a tenable post in case of extremity, as the number of troops required to garrison it properly, would be able to keep the field. It is capable of containing 15,000 men, and the works are so extensive, that 10,000 would be required to defend them efficiently, and from first to last have cost the East India Company two millions sterling. The works are scarcely at all raised above the level of the surrounding country, of course do not make an imposing appearance from without, nor are they perceptible until closely approached. This excites great surprise in the natives coming from the interior, who always connect the idea of great strength with great elevation, and usually mistake the barracks for the fort; which, however, only contains such buildings as are absolutely necessary, such as the residence of the commandant, quarters for the officers and troops, and the arsenal. These barracks make a very handsome appearance, and afford excellent accommodation both to the privates and officers. The interior of the fort is perfectly open, presenting to the view large grass plots and gravel walks, kept cool by rows of trees, and in the finest order, intermixed with piles of balls, bomb shells, and cannon. Each gate has a house over it

destined for the residence of a major. Between the fort and town an extensive level space intervenes, called the esplanade.

The garrison is usually composed of two or three European regiments, one of artillery, with artificers and workmen for the arsenals. The native corps, amounting to about 4,000 men, are generally cantoned at Barrackpoor, fifteen miles higher up the river, and supply about 1,200 monthly, to perform the duty of the fort. The wells in the different out-works of Fort William, some of which are 500 yards from the river, during the hot season become so brackish, as to be unfit either for culinary purposes, or for washing. Government has in consequence formed an immense reservoir, occupying one of the bastions, to be filled, when required, with rain water.

Until 1814, it had always been a commonly received opinion that the soil in the vicinity of Calcutta was particularly moist and full of springs, but the reverse was proved in that year, as after boring to the depth of 140 feet, no springs of any description were perceptible. While deepening, in 1813, the great tank at the beginning of the Chouringhee road, a quantity of decayed wood was found at the depth of 35 feet below the surface, which was imagined at that time to be an accidental circumstance; but in 1814, when Sir Edward Hyde East bored in search of springs, rotten wood in a stratum of blue clay was perforated, at the distance of half a mile from the tank above mentioned, which renders probable the supposition, that the debris of an ancient forest forms a substratum to a considerable extent, at that distance from the surface. The acknowledged improvement of the climate in and about Calcutta of late years, is to be ascribed to the attention paid by the police to a general system of drainage, and to the cutting of broad straight roads through the contiguous woods, in the direction of the prevailing winds. If some less swampy production could be substituted for rice in its neighbourhood, perhaps a still greater degree of salubrity might be attained. The rainy season at Calcutta usually begins about the 12th of June, and is accompanied by much thunder, and ends about the 14th of October.

Calcutta possesses the advantage of an excellent inland navigation, foreign imports being transported with great facility on the Ganges and its subsidiary streams, to the northern nations of Hindostan, while the valuable productions of the interior are received by the same channels. There are seldom less than one million sterling in cloths belonging to native merchants deposited in Calcutta for sale, and every other species of merchandize in an equal proportion. The total capital belonging to native monied and commercial interests was estimated in 1807, to exeeed 16,000,000 sterling, and has certainly since that time been greatly augmented. This amount is employed by them in the go-

vernment funds, loans to individuals, internal and external trade, and in various other transactions. The formerly timid Hindoo now lends money on respondentia, on distant voyages, engages in speculations to remote parts of the world, ensures as an underwriter, and erects indigo works in different parts of the provinces. He has the advantage of trading on his own capital with much greater frugality than a European, and exclusive of the security of his property, enjoys the most perfect toleration of his religion. In September, 1808, the Calcutta government bank was established, with a capital of 50 lacks of rupees, of which government have 10 lacks, and individuals the remainder. The notes issued are not for less than 10 rupees, or more than 10,000.

There have been various opinions as to the population of Calcutta, but it does not appear that any very correct census has ever been taken. In 1802, the police magistrates reckoned the population at 600,000; about 1810, Sir Henry Russel, the chief judge, computed the population of the town and its environs at one million; and General Kyd the population of the city alone at between 4 and 500,000 inhabitants. Probably half a million will be a tolerably correct approximation of the real number. The adjacent country is also so thickly inhabited, that in 1802 the police magistrates were of opinion that Calcutta, with a circuit of 20 miles, comprehended 2,225,000 souls. In 1798, the number of houses, shops, and other habitations in the town of Calcutta, belonging to individuals, was as follows:

British subjects	4,300
Armenians	640
Portugueze and other Christian inhabitants	2,650
Hindoos	56,460
Mahomedans	14,700
Chinese	10
Total houses	78,760

The above statement does not include the new and old forts, and many houses the property of the East India Company.

	Rupees.
In the official year, 1813-14, the house tax collected amounted to	186,053
The disbursements for salaries, collectors, commission, scavengers, town watch and river watch (62,000 rupees), carts, labourers, &c. &c. &c. amounted to	178,266
Surplus	7,787

The following are the sums collected in different branches of the public town revenue within Calcutta in the official year 1813-14. The tax for licenses on the sale of spirits produced 150,948 rupees; the duty on the fermented juice of the toddy tree 26,997 rupees; the tax on European distilleries 72,162; the duty on Ganja, or intoxicating drugs, 9,004 rupees; the market duties 12,205; fees and fines 9,868. The receipt of tolls on the canals was as follows:—

	Rupees.	Charges.	Net receipts.
Tolley's Canal.—Produce of tolls, in 1813-14	62,885	4,482	58,002
New Canal . . . . . ditto . . .	11,435	2,111	9,334
Banka Canal . . . . . ditto . . .	6,906	2,264	4,642
Canals joining the Issamutty and other rivers in the Nuddea district.			
Collections in 1813-14	23,105	11,750	11,355

Through these canals, and along the various streams of flowing water, innumerable small craft arrive from the interior and upper provinces, loaded with the produce and manufactures of their respective countries, while the shipping collected opposite to the town presents a magnificent spectacle. The river in many places reaches almost to the basis of the houses, and the people descend by flights of steps built of brick masonry. Owing to the custom of throwing dead bodies into it, the water is sufficiently dirty, yet is resorted to in crowds by the natives for the purposes of ablution. The rapidity of the tides up and down causes a constant circulation both of air and water, and tends to prevent the deleterious effects which would otherwise result from a body of water containing such putrid infusions, were it in the slightest degree stagnant, or even torpid in its motions. The following statement will shew the amount of foreign shipping in the river Hooghly on the 1st of February, 1819:—

		Tons
East India Company's ships	1	818
Free traders	24	11,174
Country ships employed	29	10,516
Ditto laid up for sale or freight . . .	32	13,015
American vesssels	6	1,966
French vessels	7	2,958
Spanish vessels	—	—
Portugueze vessels	5	1,473
Danish vessels	—	—
Arab vessels	—	—
	Total	41,920

The European society in Calcutta is numerous, gay, and convivial, and the

fetes given by the Governors General, splendid and well arranged. Each of the principal officers of government have their public days for the reception of their friends, independent of which not a day passes, particularly during the cold season, without several large dinner parties being formed of from 30 to 40. A subscription assembly also subsists, but it is unfashionable, although it is the only place of public amusement, the society being much subdivided into parties.

It is usual to rise early, in order to enjoy the cool air of the morning, which is particularly pleasant before sunrise. Betwixt one and two a meal is taken, which is called tiffin, after which many retire to bed for two or three hours. The dinner is commonly after sunset, which necessarily keeps the guests up until midnight. The viands are excellent and served in great profusion; and as the heat of the climate does not admit of their being kept, great part are at last thrown out to the pariah dogs, and birds of prey. The lower orders of Portugueze, to whom alone they could be serviceable, cannot consume the whole; and the religious prejudices of the native servants, prevent their tasting any food prepared by persons not of their caste or religion. To this circumstance is to be attributed the amazing flocks of crows, kites, and vultures, which, undisturbed by man, live together in amicable society, and almost cover the houses and gardens. In their profession of scavengers, the kites and crows are assisted during the day by the voracious adjutant stork, and after sunset by pariah dogs, foxes, and jackals, which then emerge from the neighbouring jungles, and with their howls make night hideous.

The wines chiefly drank are Madeira and claret; the former, which is excellent, during the meal, the latter afterwards. The claret being medicated for the voyage, is by some considered too strong, and both sorts of wine incur great danger from the musk rats, which, though small, have so strong a smell, that if one of them gets into a chest of wine, every bottle of wine it passes over, smells so disagreeably, and acquires so disgusting a flavour that it is not drinkable.

The Calcutta market supplies a great variety of game, such as snipes, wild ducks, partridges, and different species of the ortolan tribe; the whole comparatively cheap. The wild venison is much inferior to that of Britain, but the park or stall fed is equally good. The hare is a very poor creature, and differs in many qualities from that of Britain, being deficient in size, strength and swiftness, which observation also applies to the Bengal fox, which is a very contemptible animal. The tables of the gentlemen in Calcutta are distinguished by a vast profusion of most beautiful fruits, procured at a very moderate expense, such as pine apples, plantains, mangoes, pomeloes or shaddocks, melons of all sorts, oranges, custard apples, guavas, peaches, and an endless variety of other orchard fruits. But the great luxury of Calcutta is the mangoe fish (so named

from its appearing during the mangoe season), the taste and flavour of which can never be sufficiently extolled. By the natives they are named the Tapaswi (penitent) fish, (abbreviated by Europeans to Tipsy,) from their resembling a class of religious penitents, who ought never to shave.

The usual mode of visiting is in palanquins, but many gentlemen have carriages adapted to the climate, and the breed of horses has lately been greatly improved. It is universally the practice to drive out between sunset and dinner, and as it becomes dark, servants with torches go out and meet their masters, and run before the carriages with an astonishing rapidity, and for a wonderful length of time. It was formerly the fashion, and it is still adhered to up the country, for gentlemen to dress in white cotton jackets on all occasions, being well suited to the climate, but being thought too much of an undress for public occasions, they are now laid aside for coats of English cloth.

The British inhabitants stationary in Calcutta, and scattered through the provinces, are generally hospitable in the highest degree, and most liberal where their assistance is wanted. When an officer of respectability dies, in either service, leaving a widow or children, a subscription is immediately commenced, which in every instance has proved generous, and not unfrequently has conferred on the parties a degree of affluence, that the life of the husband or parent could not for many years have accomplished. The Asiatic Society was planned by Sir William Jones on the outward voyage from England, and formed into a regular institution on the 15th January, 1814. Its principal object is to concentrate in one focus the valuable knowledge that may be occasionally attained of Asia, or at least to preserve many little tracts and essays, the writers of which might not think them of sufficient importance for separate publication. From this period may be dated the commencement of all accurate information regarding India in general, and Hindostan in particular, which even at the present day is but very imperfectly known.

The Company grant a princely allowance to their civil servants, but large as it is, it does not always suffice for the expenses of the juniors, many of whom, on their arrival, set up an extravagant establishment of horses, carriages, and servants, and thereby involve themselves in embarrassments, at a very early period of their lives. To support this profuse mode of living they are obliged to borrow from their dewan, who is generally a monied native of rank, who supplies their extravagance, and encourages their dissipation until their difficulties are almost inextricable. While the young civilian remains in an inferior situation, the debt to the dewan continues to accumulate; and when higher appointments are at length attained, it requires years to clear off the embarrassments of his juvenile thoughtlessness. Instances of this description are now rare compared with what

they were at an earlier period of the Company's acquisitions; and, notwithstanding the multiplied temptations, a very great majority of those who reach the higher stations wholly escape their influence, and are distinguished for the most unsullied integrity of character. Whenever a deviation has occurred, it could invariably be traced to the imprudence of the young man on his first arrival, and his subsequent dependence on his dewan.

The British merchants of Calcutta are a numerous and respectable body of men, many of whom have acquired large fortunes by their industry and enterprising spirit, and conduce essentially to the prosperity of the province. Here they display a liberality in their manner of living, seldom equalled in other parts of the world; and their acts of charity and munificence to persons in distress have never been surpassed by any similar number of individuals of any rank whatever.

The Armenians are a respectable, and probably the most numerous body of foreign merchants at the presidency. They carry on an extensive trade to China and the eastward, and to the west as far as the Arabian Gulf, or Red Sea. Some of the superior class are usually invited to the public balls and entertainments. The number of Greek merchants in Calcutta is not considerable. They maintain one clergyman who performs religious worship according to their rites. The Portugueze houses of agency are, in point of number, next to those of the English. A very considerable number of the progeny of that nation reside in Calcutta and the environs, and have approximated very closely to the natives in appearance and manners. Among the various classes of mercantile community no mention is made of Jews. Few of that nation have settled in Hindostan, and Calcutta is probably the only very opulent town that is wholly free from them. Their practices and occupations are engrossed by the native sirkars, banyans, and writers; most of whom are quite a match for any Jew. The shops of these petty traffickers, although better than their houses, are mean and disagreeable. The European shops are singularly splendid. Some of these native traders have accumulated enormous fortunes, and the public apartments of a few are fitted up after the European fashion with elegant chandeliers, pier glasses, couches, chests of drawers, desks, and two or three hundred chairs; while in other rooms the images of their gods are seen decorated with jewels. Some have taken to the drinking of tea, some keep English coaches and equipages, and one in particular had an English coachman.

Without being attached to some department of the service, or trained up to some mechanical trade, there is hardly any hope of prosperity to a young man migrating on chance from Europe. Here all the inferior situations of clerks, overseers, &c. are necessarily occupied by the natives, and it is by these gradations

in Europe, that young men rise to opulence in the commercial world. It is scarcely in the power, even of a governor general, to assist a person of respectable connexions, who does not belong to one of the liberal professions; and although the general climate of the province is not essentially improved, Europeans are now much better acquainted with the means of counteracting its effects than formerly, and deaths are far from being so frequent. Regularity of living, avoiding too much exposure to the sun, and all extremes (even of abstinence) are much more practised by the modern inhabitants, than they were by the early adventurers; vacancies, consequently, in any line or trade are of much rarer occurrence. The maintenance and education of children, the offspring of Europeans in India, have, on account of their number, become objects of great importance. Two institutions for this purpose have been formed, one for the education of officers' children, and the other for those of private soldiers. To these charitable foundations may be added a free school and native hospital.

It is in Calcutta, that the effect of the intercourse between Europeans and natives is in any degree visible, as there alone, an indistinct sort of link may be discerned between the rulers and the people. The lowest and poorest Europeans, and the native born Christians and Portugueze, do, in some slight degree, mix with the natives in their ordinary concerns and amusements, just sufficient to produce a very inconsiderable change in their manners and character. The establishment of the supreme court, and the intercourse between the natives and the lowest officers of that court, must be considered another cause of the same nature; but by these causes their morals have not been in the slightest degree improved. On the contrary they have learned all the mean arts of chicanery, imposture, and litigiousness, to which they are by nature sufficiently prone; without acquiring a particle of plain dealing, firmness, independence of spirit, or useful knowledge. They appear to imbibe only those principles of the European character which tend to impair the mildness and simplicity of their own; and whenever in the behaviour of the natives insolence, ill nature, coarseness, brutality or drunkenness, qualities hostile to their national character, are observed, the change may be invariably traced to their intercourse with low Europeans.

The supreme court of judicature at Calcutta consists of a chief justice and two puisne judges, nominated to their situations in India by the king. Its cognizance extends to all British subjects, that is, natives or the descendants of the natives of Great Britain in India, and to all the inhabitants within the parochial limits of Calcutta, as enclosed by the Maharatta ditch; but this court is allowed no cognizance over the land revenue. In suits to which the natives are parties, the judges are enjoined, by act of parliament, to respect the usages of

the country. In matters of inheritance or contract, the rule of decision is to be the law acknowledged by the litigant parties. Should only one of the parties be a Mahommedan or Hindoo, it is to be the law acknowledged by the defendant. Criminal offences are tried by a jury consisting, exclusively, of British subjects; in trials of a civil nature the judges decide both on the law and on the fact. The supreme court also tries criminal charges against the Company's servants, and civil suits in which the Company or the Company's servants are concerned. The law practitioners attached to the court are 14 attornies and 6 barristers.

Little morality is learned in a court of justice, and notwithstanding the severity of the police, and of the English laws, it appears probable that the morals of the native inhabitants are worse in Calcutta, than in the provincial districts. This is not to be attributed solely to the size, population, and indiscriminate society of the capital, but in part to the supreme court; every native connected with which appearing to have his morals contaminated by the intimacy. In mentioning this evil, it is not intended in the most remote degree, to attribute it to any individual, or body of men, or to speak with disrespect of the institution itself; but merely to mention a fact, which has probably been remarked by every judge who ever sat on the bench. Within these few years the natives have attained a sort of legal knowledge, as it is usually denominated. This consists of a skill in the arts of collusion, intrigue, subornation, and perjury, which enables them to perplex and baffle the magistrate with infinite facility.

Notwithstanding the temptations to which the natives are exposed, it is surprising how seldom thefts or burglaries are committed on the property of Europeans in Bengal, who scarcely take any precautions towards their prevention. In some families 30 or 40 domestics, many of them natives of distant provinces, sleep during the night within the enclosure, or in the passages and verandahs of the house, when every door is open, and detection almost impossible. Owing to their extreme timidity they seldom venture to rob openly, or on a large scale, but prefer a more indirect and complicated system of small pilfering and cheating.

Besides the supreme court, Calcutta is the head quarters of a court of appeal, and circuit, which comprehends the following subdivisions: 1. Burdwan; 2. Jungle Mahals; 3. Midnapoor; 4. Cuttack; 5. Jessore; 6. Nuddea; 7. Hooghly; 8. The 24 Pergunnahs.—*(Public documents, manuscript and printed, Lord Valentia, Tennant, Sir H. Strachey, Milburn, Harrington, M. Graham, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

CHANDERNAGORE *(Chandranagara)*. This French settlement stands on the west bank of the river Hooghly, about 16 miles direct distance above Calcutta, lat. 22° 49′ N. long. 88° 26′ E. The position of this town is in every respect

better than that of Calcutta; the territory originally attached to it extended two miles along the river and one inland. In 1814, an enumeration was made of the houses and inhabitants, when the former were found to amount to 8,484, and the latter to males 20,829, females 20,548;—total, 41,377.

Abstract of receipts on account of the revenues of Chandernagore for one year, from May, 1813, to April, 1814.

	Rupees.
Land revenue	9,868
Excise	6,586
Variable imposts (sayer)	13,532
Commission on the sale of houses, &c.	2,050
Fees	118
Total rupees	32,154

While under the British government, the foreign settlements of Chandernagore, Chinsura, and Serampoor, swarmed with receivers of stolen goods, who purchased the stolen property clandestinely imported from the Company's districts; and, on account of the facilities afforded to this species of traffic, these settlements were resorted to by various classes of native cheats, swindlers, hawkers, pedlars, and fraudulent pawnbrokers. On this account it was proposed in 1814, by the police superintendant of the lower districts, that the established shops of ironsmiths, silversmiths, braziers, &c. &c. should be placed under the cognizance of the police.

On the 23d of March, 1757, Chandernagore was taken by the forces under Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, after a most obstinate resistance, and with great slaughter on board the ships engaged. It has since remained unfortified, and has been taken possession of by the British government without opposition on the commencement of hostilities with France. On the 4th of December, 1816, this settlement was delivered over to Major Dayot, the governor appointed to receive it on the part of the French government, after having been (with the exception of a few months in 1802) 23 years in the occupation of the British.—*(W. B. Bayley, I. Shakespear, Ives, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

CHINSURA *(Chinchura)*.—This Dutch settlement is situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, 18 miles direct distance above Calcutta, latitude 22° 52′ N. longitude 88° 28′ E. The first factory of the Dutch East India Company was erected here in 1656, and the site on the whole is much preferable to that of Calcutta. In 1769, Chinsura was blockaded by the Nabob of Bengal's forces, to compel the payment of arrears of duties, although the province was then

actually possessed by the English East India Company. It has since been regularly captured by the British forces on the commencement of hostilities with the Dutch.

Abstract of receipts on account of the revenues of Chinsura and Barnagore, from the 1st of May, 1813, to 30th April, 1814.

	Rupees.
Land revenue	4,725
Excise duties	5,191
Variable imposts (sayer)	7,089
Commission on the transfer of houses, &c. &c.	973
Fees	10
Total rupees	17,988

Schools were established at Chinsura, and in its vicinity, by Mr. Robert May, with the view of instructing native children in reading, writing, and arithmetic, in the Bengalese language, on an improved and economical system, conveying instruction in a more speedy and effectual manner than could be done by any of the ordinary modes of teaching. On the 11th of July, 1814, the total number of children on the books of 15 village schools was 1080, and the number of those who regularly attended 861. The greater proportion of the teachers are Brahmins, and the remainder of the writer caste. In this school a few of the more advanced boys are taught English, chiefly as a reward for their proficiency in their own language, and their general good conduct; which branch of education (the teaching of English) ought to receive more encouragement than it has hitherto done; and at a future period Mr. May's plan may form the basis of a system of more general instruction through the country.—*(Stavorinus, Rennell, May, &c. &c.)*

SERAMPOOR *(Sriramapura)*. This Danish settlement stands on the west side of the Hooghly river, about 12 miles above Calcutta, latitude 22° 45′ N. longitude 88° 26′ E.

The appearance of Serampoor has a pleasing effect viewed from the river, the houses being tolerably well built, and whitened like those of Calcutta with chunam. It extends above a mile along the banks of the Hooghly, but the breadth is very small, and the whole is environed by the British territories. The town is without fortifications, and has only a small battery for saluting, yet it has been a very profitable settlement to the subjects of his Danish majesty, principally by the facilities it afforded to the Calcutta merchants of carrying on a trade during war, under the cover of the Danish flag. Ships of burden cannot come close up to the town, on account of a shoal lower down,

but labour in this province is so cheap, that the additional expense of conveying the goods by boats adds little to the prime cost. Here also, until hostilities commenced with Denmark, insolvent debtors found an asylum, from whence they could set their creditors at defiance.

Serampoor is the head quarters of the missionaries delegated from Europe, for the purpose of converting the natives of Hindostan to the Christian religion; and here they have established a printing press, where the Scriptures have been translated into a great variety of dialects. The proficiency attained by these worthy men in the eastern languages is truly wonderful; they have mastered even the Chinese, hitherto the opprobrium of linguists.

Abstract of receipts on account of revenues for one year, from 1st May, 1813, to 30th April, 1814.

	Rupees.
Land revenue	6,050
Excise	4,158
Variable imposts (sayer)	2,821
Commission on the sale of houses, &c. &c.	202
Total rupees	13,231

(Lord Valentia, &c. &c.)

BARNAGORE *(Varanagara)*. This small town stands on the east side of the Hooghly river, about three miles above Calcutta. It was originally a Portugueze settlement, but afterwards came into the possession of the Dutch; and by the earlier British authorities is described as being the Paphos of Calcutta. Here the coarsest sort of blue handkerchiefs are manufactured.

BANKYBAZAR. A small town on the east side of the Hooghly river, 13 miles north from Calcutta. The Dutch had formerly a factory here from which they were expelled by Aliverdi Khan. Latitude 22° 46′ N. longitude 38° 28′ E.

BARRACKPOOR. This may be designated as a British settlement, situated on the east side of the river Hooghly, about 16 miles above Calcutta. Here are the unfinished arches of a house begun by the Marquis Wellesley, but discontinued by the frugality of the Court of Directors. In the park there is a menagerie, but it contains few animals of any sort. Horse races are run here in the cold season, government having discouraged those at Calcutta.—*(M. Graham, &c.)*

BALLIAGHAUT. This is now properly a part of Calcutta, being its port for the eastern inland navigation; although within the memory of inhabitants still alive, a jungle intervened two miles in extent, infested by tigers and other ferocious animals, by which several natives were annually devoured. A remarkable change has since taken place, there being an avenue of handsome houses and gardens the whole way. It is situated at the western extremity of

two shallow, muddy, salt lakes, which at low ebb are nearly empty, but which when full, admit of being passed by boats and craft of considerable burthen. Some old inhabitants resident in Calcutta, recollect a creek which ran from Chandpaul Ghaut to Balliaghaut. They say that the drain from the government house is where it took its course, and there is a ditch to the south of the Beytakhana, which shews evident traces of the continuance of this creek. *(Fifth Report, &c.)*

CHAPTER V.

REVENUE SYSTEM, LAND TAX ASSESSMENT, ZEMINDARS, REVENUE OF EACH DISTRICT, ABSTRACT OF THE TOTAL ANNUAL REVENUE, CHARGES AND DEBTS, SALES OF ESTATES, PENSIONS, KHAS LANDS, PERPETUAL SETTLEMENT, MODE OF COLLECTION, CHANGES OF RIVERS, SURVEYS, FREE LANDS, SAYER OR VARIABLE IMPOSTS, CUSTOMS, TOWN DUTIES, CANAL TOLLS, STAMP DUTIES, SALT, ABKARRY OR EXCISE, PILGRIM TAX.

In the revenue system of Bengal, the ryot, or cultivator, is described as a tenant paying rent, and his superior as a landlord or landholder; but strictly speaking, his payment heretofore was a contribution to the state, levied by officers named zemindars, standing between him and the government. In the rule for the division of the crop, whether under special engagements, or by custom, their proportions are known: viz.

Half to the landlord and half to the tenant.

One-third to the landlord and two-thirds to the tenant.

The standard for the regulation of rates has been lost, but we learn from the observations on the revenue of Bengal, by the late James Grant, Esq., that the assessment was limited not to exceed in the whole a fourth part of the actual gross produce of the soil. In early times the demands of the Hindoo sovereigns were still more moderate. The Mahabharat states that the prince was to levy a fiftieth part of the produce of mines, and a tenth of corn. Menu and other legislators authorize the sovereign to exact a tenth, an eighth, or a twelfth of grain, according to circumstances, and a sixth of the clear annual produce of trees.

With respect to the much-disputed nature of landed property in Bengal, in

one point of view the zemindars, as descendants of the ancient independent Rajas, seem to have been tributary princes. In another light they appear to be only the officers of government. Probably their real character partook of both. This, however, must be obviously restricted to Rajas, who possessed great zemindaries. Numerous landholders subordinate to these, as well as others independent of them, cannot evidently be traced to a similar origin; and the Mahommedan sovereigns and governors of Bengal seem to have been altogether indifferent with respect to the mutations of landed property, provided the new proprietor paid his revenue.

The zemindars are now acknowledged for various reasons, and from considerations of expediency, which decided the question, as proprietors of the soil. Yet it has been admitted from very high authority, that anciently the sovereign was the proprietor of the soil, that the zemindars were officers of revenue, justice, and police, and that their office was frequently, but not necessarily, hereditary. To collect and assess the contributions regulated as they were by local customs, or particular agreements, but varying at the same time with the necessities of the state, was the business of the zemindar, as a permanent, if not as an hereditary officer. For the due execution of his charge, he was checked by permanent and hereditary officers of revenue and account.

Various changes have taken place in the mode of collecting the land revenue of Bengal. From 1767 to 1769 the collection was entirely under the management of Mahommed Reza Khan; Mr. Verelst, in 1769, sent supervisors into several districts. In 1770, two boards of revenue were appointed, one at Moorshedabad, and one at Patna. In 1772, Mr. Hastings, in consequence of instructions from home, deprived Mahommed Reza Khan of all power, and made Calcutta the seat of fiscal government. In 1773, the collectors were withdrawn, and six provincial councils appointed. In 1781, these councils were withdrawn, collectors again deputed, and a supreme board of revenue appointed in Calcutta, which still continues. The total amount of the land revenue collected for a series of years shews a remarkable equality.

In 1772	297 lacks of current rupees.	In 1781	301 lacks.
1773	294	1782	299
1774	295	1783	300
1775	296	1784	303
1776	291	1785	299
1777	286	1786	311
1778	290	1787	298
1779	288	1788	315
1780	282	1789	308

The following statement exhibits a correct account of the jumma, or demand on account of the land revenue, and of the abkarry, or excise; for the year 1814-15, restricted to the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and that portion of Orissa which has since the first conquest been attached to the Bengal presidency.

BENGAL PROVINCE.	Jumma.	Abkarry.
Burdwan district	4,323,663 sicca rupees	82,650 sicca rupees.
Chittagong	585,611	8,064
Dacca Jelalpoor	1,289,145	29,212
Dinagepoor	1,766,373	10,117
Jessore	1,197,561	10,486
Moorshedabad	1,874,588	97,032
Mymunsingh	757,550	21,900
Nuddea	1,191,133	11,951
Purneah	1,035,789	37,476
Raujshahy	1,469,814	20,480
Rajmahal	57,107	3,713
Rungpoor	1,062,115	16,877
Cooch Bahar	62,722	
Silhet	291,504	7,005
Tiperah	1,134,888	15,550
24 Pergunnahs	1,249,003	94,675
Total Bengal Province	19,338,574	467,195
BAHAR PROVINCE.		
Bahar district	1,748,006	318,675
Boglipoor	385,916	44,569
Dhurrumpoor	244,756	4,005
Sarun	1,410,560	92,865
Shahabad	1,128,515	48,947
Tirhoot	1,234,680	40,037
Total Bahar	6,152,435	549,103
ORISSA PROVINCE.		
Hidjellee district	291,448	983
Midnapoor	1,491,240	10,405
	1,782,688	11,389
Total Jumma	27,273,698	1,027,687

Total land revenue for 1813-14	27,266,031
Ditto 1814-15	27,273,698
More in 1814-15	7,667

Gross receipts of land revenue and sayer in 1814-15.

Land revenue	25,596,707
Surplus collections 1815-16	114,295
Collections from the military bazars	7,452
Account balances, 1813-14	1,314,323
Ditto of preceding years	25,651
Abkarry collections	1,027,687
Sayer ditto, exclusive of abkarry	352,699
Interest on arrears of land revenue and tuccavy advances	156,339
Batta fees, and other contingencies	116,872
Sicca rupees	28,712,025

Charges in 1814-15.

Ordinary charges, including embankment disbursements	1,430,010
Pensions and madrissa charges	461,703
Compensation for sayer	78,652
Loss by remittances and other contingencies	34,318
Sicca rupees	2,004,683
1814-15 net receipts, deducting charges	26,707,343

BENARES PROVINCE.

1813-14 Jumma or land revenue	4,079,124
Gross receipts of the Benares province, 1813-14	4,562,707

UPPER PROVINCES.

The upper provinces subordinate to the Bengal Presidency consist of territory ceded to the British government by the Nabob of Oude, and since formed into the districts of Moradabad, Bareily, Etawah, Caunpoor, Furruckabad, Allahabad, and Goracpoor; of the Bundelcund country ceded by the Peshwa, and of the conquered territory between the Ganges and Jumna rivers, or situated on the right bank of the latter, ceded by Dowlet Row Sindia, and now constituting the districts of Saharunpoor (northern and southern divisions), Alighur, and Agra; exclusive of the city of Delhi, and a contiguous tract of country appropriated to the support of the Mogul royal family.

Revenue of ceded provinces in the above mentioned territory for 1813-14.

Allahabad district	2,801,915	Brought up	11,988,005
Bareilly	2,357,996	Goracpoor district	1,775,377
Caunpoor	2,715,080	Moradabad	2,601,921
Etawah	3,062,068	Shahjehanpoor	1,146,165
Furruckabad	1,050,946	Total Lucknow rupees	17,511,469
Carried up	11,988,005		

Revenue of conquered provinces, exclusive of Cuttack, 1813-14.

Agra district	1,425,238	Brought up	7,157,364
Alighur	3,152,309	Bundelcund	2,885,430
Saharunpoor	2,579,817	Total Lucknow rupees	10,042,794
Carried up	7,157,364		

DELHI.—Produce of the lands assigned for the support of the emperor of Delhi in 1814, ... 1,256,505

CUTTACK.—The total amount of the revenue of the Cuttack district, named Mogulbundee, is 1,363,668 rupees; but there are other very considerable sources of revenue.

The aggregate jumma of the several districts in the ceded and conquered provinces during the whole period of the settlements which expired in 1815, amounted to nine croses and thirty lacks of rupees. The whole of that sum, with the exception of 21 lacks, had been collected prior to the 30th of September, 1814, leaving a deficiency of about 2¼ per cent. on the total demand for the period of the settlement in question.

	Sicca Rupees.
It appears from a report of the Board of Revenue, that the jumma, or land-tax assessment, of the estates advertised for sale on account of arrears of revenue in 1809, amounted to . . .	8,723,050
In 1810	10,015,039
That the total jumma of the lands actually sold amounted in 1809 to	83,485
In 1810 to only	16,926

And that the purchase money of the estates disposed of in the latter year, amounted to 74,140 rupees, being at the rate of 43 years purchase, reckoning the proprietor's profit at ten per cent. The statements exhibited on this occasion certainly presented a number of extraordinary and important facts. Lands paying a land-tax to government of more than ten millions of rupees,

were advertised for sale in 1810, when the total balance due from defaulting proprietors, amounted to no more than 2,467,325, and the quantity actually disposed of, to only 16,926 of jumma, or land tax.

The difference of the value of land in the different provinces, and even in the different districts of the same province under the Bengal Presidency, presented likewise most remarkable and unexpected results. In Bengal the sales of 1810, averaged 23 years purchase, whereas in Bahar they averaged 67, and in Orissa 53 years purchase. In Bengal land sold for 245 years purchase, in the district of Rungpoor; for 93 in Chittagong; 46 in Burdwan; 11 in Tiperah; 8 in Dacca; 4 in Nuddea; and only one in Moorshedabad. In the province of Bahar land sold for 331 years purchase, in the district of Sarun; 185 in Tirhoot, and only 21 in Shahabad. In Dinagepoor, the portion of land actually sold was so minute, that the land-tax on it did not exceed one anna (1½*d.*), and it was sold or rather given away for nothing.

If this vast difference be owing entirely, or in great part, to the inequality of the assessment, it tends to prove that the data on which the permanent settlement was formed, viz. the average of former years' collections, without reference to there sources of particular districts, were most erroneous; and this evidence of the error committed, strongly impresses the necessity of greater caution in future, and more accurate investigation before the conclusion of similar arrangements.

	Rupees.
Land-tax assessment of the estates advertised for sale for the recovery of arrears of revenue in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, in 1811	10,746,505
In 1812	2,358,612
Less .	8,387,893
Land-tax assessment (jumma) of the estates actually sold in 1811	30,931
Ditto in 1812	90,898
More .	59,967

The purchase money of the estates actually sold in 1812, amounted to 408,395 rupees, being at the rate of nearly 45 years purchase of the zemindar's supposed profit, (malikhanah), and assuming, according to former computations, that the purchasers expect an income or interest of ten per cent. on their principal, this average would indicate, that the medium of the net income of proprietors is in the proportion of 45 to 100 of the jumma, or land-tax, paid to government.

The total amount of pensions and charitable allowances, payable from the treasuries of the collectors, in the year 1814, according to the book of establishment for that year was as follows:

Bengal districts, per annum	242,444 rupees.
Bahar ditto	216,781
Orissa ditto, including Cuttack	20,130
Benares ditto	164,194
Upper Provinces	1,255,216
Rupees	1,898,767

This amount, however, includes political stipends, payable by the collectors, amounting to 662,735 rupees per annum, and also some pensions of a miscellaneous nature, to individuals in the service of government.

KHAS LANDS.—The official accounts of 1813, state the jumma, or land assessment of estates held khas, or let in farm, in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa (exclusive of Calcutta) as follows:

	Sicca Rupees.
Jumma of the khas estates, chiefly the property of government	155,648
Ditto of the farmed estates	956,065

The latter, however, includes 363,876, the assessment of the estates of minors, and other disqualified landholders, under the custody of the court of wards. Both statements also include, besides the estates of proprietors who have preferred receiving a fixed amount of malikhana, or allowance out of their estates, to the contingency of profit or loss arising from an engagement for the land revenue, the khas lands in the Moorshedabad, and other districts, which are the immediate property of government, and rated in the records of the Board of Revenue at near three lacks of rupees per annum.

An Account of the Annual Revenues and Charges of Bengal for the year 1816-17.

Revenue.

Mint duties	435,187
Post office collections	500,120
Stamp duties	1,214,823
Judicial fines, fees, and licenses for the sale of spirituous liquors, &c.	713,552
Customs in Bengal, Bahar and Orissa	4,955,626
Land and sayer revenues of ditto	35,545,337
Benares revenues, customs and judicial fees, &c.	6,333,055
Ceded provinces in Oude, 1801, revenues, customs, &c.	23,288,085
Carried over	72,985,785

Brought forward	72,985,785
Conquered provinces, 1803-4 revenues, customs, &c.	17,585,786
Sale of salt	17,131,682
Sale of opium	9,416,539
Marine receipts for pilotage, &c.	395,402
Military—Nagpoor subsidy	379,913
Total current rupees	117,895,107
	£11,789,511
Deduct charges	8,025,980
Net revenue	£3,763,531

Charges.

Mint charges	217,240
Post office charges	450,329
Charges of the civil establishment	5,299,131
Stamp office charges	477,312
Total civil charges	6,444,012
Judicial charges; viz. Supreme Court of Judicature and law charges incidental to its establishment	636,613
Charges of the Sudder and Zillah courts and police establishment in Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa	5,933,177
Total judicial charges	6,569,790
Charges for collecting the customs of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa	512,860
Charges on the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, including stipends to the Nabob and his family, &c.	4,963,003
Benares charges: collecting the revenues and customs, judicial, &c. charges	1,745,915
Oude: charges collecting ditto	3,674,468
Conquered provinces: charges collecting ditto	7,947,221
Salt advances and charges	4,761,455
Opium ditto	1,185,490
Military charges	40,484,599
Building and fortifications	695,534
Marine charges	1,275,451
Current rupees	80,259,798
	£8,025,980

Bond, Register, and other debts of the Bengal presidency in 1816-17; bearing interest	£26,183,895
Arrears of debts of ditto; not bearing interest	3,796,295
Total Bengal debts 1816-17	£29,980,190

Detail of Debts bearing Interest.

Loans, &c. at 6 per cent.	208,899,977	Sicca Rupees.
Ditto from the Nabob of Oude ditto	10,382,093	
Deposits at 6 per cent.	57,135	
The Bhow Begum's stipend fund	5,684,554	
Promissory and treasury notes at 6 per cent.	699,477	
	225,723,236	
Add 16 per cent.	36,115,718	
	261,838,954	or £26,183,895

Abstract of the Revenues, Charges, and Debt of India, from 1793 to 1806.

	Revenue.	Charges.	Amount of Debt.
1793-4	£ 8,276,770	£ 6,066,923	£ 7,971,668
1798-9	8,652,032	8,417,812	12,811,863
1802-3	13,464,537	11,043,108	19,523,737
1805-6	15,217,516	15,561,380	28,538,804

A General Abstract View of the actual Revenues and Charges of India for three years, viz.

Revenues.

	1814-15	1815-16	1816-17
Bengal	£11,089,823	£11,243,273	£11,789,511
Madras	5,322,164	5,104,798	5,339,448
Bombay	819,204	818,815	860,404
Bencoolen	11,772	10,755	12,581
Prince of Wales Island	54,316	53,868	54,861
Total	£17,297,279	£17,231,509	£18,056,805

Charges.

	1814-15	1815-16	1816-17
Bengal	£7,373,005	£7,854,681	£8,025,980
Madras	5,134,246	5,265,802	5,103,194
Bombay	1,675,200	1,937,430	1,902,460
Bencoolen	60,540	72,792	65,547
Prince of Wales Island	117,711	119,684	109,562
Total	£14,360,702	£15,250,389	£15,206,743

The above statement is extracted from the accounts laid before parliament in 1819; the following abstract is from a statement compiled in Bengal, and comes down to a later date, viz. Indian revenues for 1817-18. Sicca rupees 156,871,060

Ditto charges ditto 152,700,957

Surplus 4,170,100

In the beginning of 1819, the gross addition to the territorial resources of the Indian governments, from acquisitions made during and subsequent to the Pindarry war, was estimated as follows:—

	Sicca Rupees.
Acquisitions from Nagpoor	2,247,200
Ditto Holkar	1,000,000
Ditto Saugur	500,000
Ditto Ajmeer	400,000
Ditto Tributes	1,500,000
	5,647,200
Gross estimate as likely to accrue from the Poona dominions	8,711,753
Total addition	14,358,953

Account of the Territorial Debts owing at the Three Presidencies, viz.

	Bengal. 31 Jan. 1818.	Madras. 31 Oct. 1817.	Bombay. 31 Jan. 1818.	Total.
Debts at 6 per cent. . .	£26,268,352	£2,358,183	£432,188	£29,058,723
Ditto at 8 per cent. . .	13,444	17,600	—	31,044
Ditto at 9 per cent. . .	—	—	80,031	80,831
Total debts bearing interest	£26,281,796	£2,375,783	£513,019	£29,170,598
Debts not bearing interest	3,938,125	821,344	254,070	5,013,539
Total debts in India .	£30,219,921	£3,197,127	£767,089	£34,184,137

In 1793 the territorial revenue of the Bengal province, which had before fluctuated, was permanently and irrevocably fixed, during the administration of Lord Cornwallis, at a certain valuation of the property moderately assessed; but this permanent settlement has not yet been introduced into the territories obtained by cession from the Nabob of Oude or by conquest from the Maharattas. The mighty mass of papers, which the agitation of this question introduced among the Company's records, proves the ability, labour, and anxiety, with which it was discussed. In the ceded provinces the public revenue has always been satisfac-

torily collected, if compared with its collection only a few years ago in the lower districts, even under all the advantages arising from a permanent settlement. For a considerable period of time, subsequent to the conclusion of that settlement, the ultimate arrears stood in a much higher ratio to the jumma, than they did in the ceded provinces a few years after their acquisition, nor was it until the year 1800, that they were reduced within a moderate compass. Hence a new argument arises against a premature settlement in perpetuity of the Upper provinces, which under their present constitution are sufficiently prosperous, the cultivation extending, and the population increasing and becoming daily more contented and tractable, all of which has taken place under a system of temporary leases, and in spite of adverse and precarious seasons.

The Mahommedans from the beginning of their power employed the Persian language in the affairs of government, and notwithstanding its clumsy and cumbersome arithmetic, in the collection also of the revenue. This practice aided them in maintaining their authority, and enabled them, instead of blindly depending on native functionaries, to look into the conduct and details of public business, as well as to keep intelligible registers of the income and expenditure of the state. The native Hindoos, finding that a knowledge of the language of government was necessary to every concern of revenue or justice, made exertions to acquire it, and in process of time became teachers of it throughout the whole Mogul empire. At present, considering the very indifferent character of the native revenue officers, it is a just subject of regret that more European agency has not been devoted to the internal administration of the country. If the dimensions of the different districts, and the multifarious duties of the collectors be duly considered, especially in Benares and the Upper provinces, it will appear manifest that these officers can only inspect much the greater portion of business through the medium of native servants, that is to say, through the falsest medium possible. On the other hand it is equally evident, that the most solid improvements may be effected, when due attention can be given to them by capable and efficient European functionaries.

Among the various pretexts adopted by the land owners of this province for reducing the revenue to a trifle, one of the most common and successful is, to write down a large portion of the estate as destroyed by rivers. This furnishes a good plea not only for a deduction in the revenue, but keeps open a claim for the lands, which afterwards might be recovered from the injury they had sustained. In many instances this has succeeded; as no additional revenue is taken when a river adds new lands to a zemindary, a gradual diminution of the aggregate revenue must be therefore always taking place. Hence also originate violent and protracted disputes between contiguous proprietors, with ruinous suits in the courts

of law, which usually for many years prevent the cultivation of new formed lands, although remarkably productive when under tillage. Government is consequently in every point of view a sufferer by these irregularities in the courses and channels of rivers; and all zemindars, as a general rule, complain of encroachments on the part of their neighbours. Under these circumstances the most substantial advantages would be derived from regular surveys of each district respectively, undertaken by professional persons and executed in a scientific manner. They are obviously calculated to ascertain and fix the boundaries of estates, and to afford the requisite data for judging of various other points involved in the settlement of lands, whether permanent or temporary. Such surveys, when completed, would in their operation tend eventually to prevent the sanguinary affrays regarding the disputed boundaries, while they would greatly facilitate the partition of estates, the difficulties attendant on which have been long felt as a serious evil.

In Bengal, the class of needy proprietors of land is very numerous; but even the greatest landlords are not in a situation to allow that indulgence and accommodation to their tenants which might be expected on viewing the extent of their income. Responsible to government for a tax originally calculated at ten-elevenths of the expected rents of their estates, they have no probable surplus above their expenditure to compensate for their risk. Any accident, any calamity, may involve a zemindar in difficulties from which no economy or attention can retrieve him. Prior to 1790, half the revenues of Bengal were paid by six large zemindars, viz. Rajshahy, Burdwan, Dinagepoor, Nuddea, Birboom, and Calcutta.

Free lands are distinguished according to their appropriations, for Brahmins, bards, encomiasts, ascetics, priests, and mendicants, or for a provision for several public officers. The greatest part of the present free lands in Bengal Proper, were originally granted in small portions of waste ground. The more extensive tracts of free land are managed in the same mode as estates assessed for revenue, and the subject will be adverted to in each district respectively.

The sayer revenue of the nature of land rent, consists of ground rent for the sites of houses and gardens, revenue drawn from fruit trees, pastures and mathes, and rent of fisheries. Other articles of sayer, collected within the village, have been abolished; such for example as market tolls, and personal taxes. Ground rents were never generally levied from cultivators engaged in husbandry. No branch of administration requires more prudence and circumspection, or a more accurate knowledge of the temper and character of the people of India, than the imposition of new taxes: and it is a principle highly important to be kept in view, that when the state of the public resources calls for an increase of revenue,

it is decidedly preferable to seek that increase in the renewal of old, than in the establishment of new taxes. The civil and domestic usages of the natives are so much interwoven with their religious rites, and they are so particularly alive to every innovation or departure from established custom, that in fixing a tax on articles of general consumption, it is not to be considered whether it be more or less oppressive than a tax directly collected from the individual, but whether it be so felt by him. By an impost on articles of consumption, the individual is compelled by his necessities or inclinations to the use of it, thus gradually and almost imperceptibly contributing to the necessities of the state, while a personal demand on him for the payment of a sum much less than the aggregate of what he indirectly contributes, may be considered by him an extortion, which he is warranted in evading if he can. Owing also to the abuses inseparable from all transactions carried on by native officers with small salaries, placed beyond the inspection and controul of the Company's European servants, the community, when a duty is laid on, have in general to pay twice as much as ever finds its way into the public treasury.

A poll tax, called jaziyeh, was imposed by the Khalif Omar, on all persons not of the Mahommedan faith. The Musselmaun conquerors of Hindostan imposed it on the Hindoos as infidels, but it was abolished by the Emperor Acber. At a subsequent period Aurengzebe attempted to revive it, but without success.

CUSTOMS.—Gross and net receipts of the government customs and town duties, including the ceded and conquered provinces and Benares, as well as the lower districts under the Bengal Presidency. For 1812 5,776,931

For 1813. 6,111,155

Increase . 334,224

Charges for 1812 784,868

Ditto for 1813 821,423

Increase . 36,555

Statement of the collection of the government customs for 1815-16.

Lower Provinces.	*Rupees.*	*Upper Provinces*	*Rupees.*
Calcutta . .	941,077	Cawnpoor . .	370,788
Patna . . .	404,764	Furruckabud . .	183,069
Dacca . . .	200,679	Allahabad . .	266,636
Carried over .	1,546,520	Carried over .	820,493

Lower Provinces.	*Rupees.*	*Upper Provinces.*	*Rupees.*
Brought over	1,546,520	Brought over	820,493
Chittagong	14,251	Bareily	176,557
Moorshedabad	680,767	Agra	764,522
Hooghly	376,271	Meerut	241,283
Cuttack	21,027	Mirzapoor	153,577
		Benares	100,222
		Ghazipoor	196,390
		Total	5,091,888

The following is a memorandum of the net collection of the town duties in 1815-16.

	Rupees.		Rupees.		Rupees.
Calcutta	109,080	Furruckabad	21,136	Benares	65,677
Moorshedabad	37,393	Allahabad	10,482	Etawah	2,935
Dacca	7,117	Bareily	19,590	Goruckpoor	5,942
Patna	22,647	Agra	17,423	Moradabad	4,231
Chittagong	182	Meerut	6,231	Alighur	5,272
Cawnpoor	9,818	Mirzapoor	61,363	Bundelcund	3,777
				Total	410,296

Besides the above, town duties are levied at the following places.

Midnapoor,	Nattore,	Purneah,	Chupra,
Burdwan,	Dinagepoor,	Silhet,	Arra,
Hooghly,	Comillah,	Boglipoor,	Gaya,
Kishenagur,	Nuseerabad,	Muzufferpoor,	Ghazipoor.
Jessore,	Rungpoor,		

Net collections on acount of the several tolls specified below, for 1815-16.

Tolley's Nullah	Rupees 56,283
Balliaghaut Canal	10,941
Tumlook Canal	5,851
Matabanga and other rivers in the Nuddea district	34,819

The net amount collected on account of stamp duties in 1815-16,

was, in the Lower Provinces	Rupees 750,599
Ditto in the Upper provinces	190,947
Total	941,546

Net receipts in the salt department, after deducting advances and charges;

In 1813-14	Rupees 9,637,709
In 1814-15	9,907,100
In 1815-16	10,250,614
In 1816-17	10,651,236

after deducting a payment of eight lacks of rupees to the French government. The annual quantity of salt disposed of at the public sales during the above period was from 42 to 45 lacks of maunds.

In addition to the duties levied by the justices of peace for the town of Calcutta, the general collection on account of the abkarry mahal, or excise, in the Upper and Lower Provinces, for 1815-16, was as follows:

	Rupees.
On spirits manufactured at the Presidency distilleries	436,380
On the sale of spirits beyond the precincts of ditto	1,613,040
On rum made according to the European process	11,490
On puchwy	67,012
On taree	168,705
On drugs, exclusive of opium	203,632
On the retail sale of opium	19,730
Duty advanced on abkarry licences in lieu of security	4,284
Abkarry fines and forfeitures	7,637
Gross collections	2,531,910
Deduct charges and commission	232,268
Net collections	2,299,642

In addition to the sources of revenue above mentioned, a tax on Hindoo pilgrims is levied by the British government in continuance of former usage, at the following places, viz.

Gaya, in the province of Bahar.

Juggernauth, in the province of Orissa.

Allahabad, at the conflux of the Ganges and Jumna.

(Public documents, manuscript and printed; Colebrooke, Harrington, Major Scott, Lieutenant Irvine, F. Buchanan, Ernst, &c. &c. &c.)

CHAPTER VI.

NATURE OF THE GOVERNMENT, COURTS OF LAW, STATIONS OF MAGISTRATES, LAW PROCEEDINGS, DACOITY OR GANG ROBBERY, PREVAILING CRIMES AND OFFENCES, POLICE SYSTEM, CHILD MURDER, PERJURY, LANDHOLDERS, LITIGATION, RELATIVE SITUATION OF THE NATIVES AS REGARDS THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT, CIVIL SERVANTS, MILITARY ESTABLISHMENT NATIVE AND EUROPEAN.

THE civil and military government of the territories under the Bengal Presidency is vested in a Governor-General and three counsellors. Vacancies in the council are supplied by the Court of Directors, from the civil servants of not less than 12 years standing. For the administration of justice throughout the provinces subject to the presidency, there are in the civil and criminal departments one supreme court, stationed at Calcutta.

Six courts of appeal and circuit, attached to six different divisions, viz. Calcutta, Moorshedabad, Dacca, Patna, Benares, and Bareily.

Forty-six inferior courts, or rather magistrates, stationed in so many different districts and cities, viz.

Agra	Chittagong	Jungle Mahals	Ramghur
Allahabad	Cuttack	Meerut	Rungpoor
Alighur	Dacca	Midnapoor	Sarun
Backergunge	Dinagepoor	Mirzapoor	Shahabad
Bahar	Etaweh	Moorshedabad	Saharunpoor
Bareily	Furruckabad	Moradabad	Shahjehanpoor
Benares	Gorucpoor	Mymunsingh	Silhet
Birboom	Hooghly	Nuddea	Tiperah
Bundelcund	Jessore	Purneah	Tirhoot
Burdwan	Juanpoor	Rajshahy	24 Pergunnahs
Caunpoor			

The city courts are Benares, Dacca, Moorshedabad and Patna.

The courts of circuit consist of three judges with an assistant, together with native officers both Mahommedan and Hindoo. The judges make their circuits at stated periods, and hold also regular and frequent jail deliveries. They try criminal offences according to the Mahommedan law; but when the sentence is capital, or imprisonment is awarded beyond a defined period, it does not take effect until it receives confirmation from the superior criminal court stationed in Calcutta, named the Nizamut Adawlet. The principal business of this court is to

revise trials; but it is in no case permitted to aggravate the severity of the sentence.

In the provincial districts, the officer who, in his criminal capacity, has the appellation of magistrate, is also the civil judge of the district or city in which he resides. He tries all suits of a civil nature, provided the cause of action have originated, the property concerned be situated, or the defendant be resident, within his jurisdiction. To try suits of a small limited amount, the judge may appoint native commissioners, from whose decisions an appeal lies to the judge; with a few exceptions the decisions of the judge are appealable, to the provincial courts of appeal, within the jurisdiction of which he resides. Each distinct judge has a register, with one or more assistants, from among the junior civil servants, and each court is provided with natives duly qualified to expound the Hindoo and Mahommedan law. In criminal matters, the magistrates of districts are vested with powers of apprehending and examining all offenders. On slight offences they may pass and execute sentence; in cases of greater atrocity it is their business to secure the supposed delinquents for trial before the court of circuit, and this is effected either by committing or holding to bail. Each zillah, or district, is subdivided into portions about 20 miles square; and in each of these, a darogah, or head police officer, is established, with armed followers, who is empowered to apprehend on a written charge, and to take security in case of a bailable offence for appearance before the magistrate. The average size of a district under the Bengal presidency, may be taken at 6000 square miles; but in particular instances the dimensions vary extremely: Burdwan contains only 2400, and Boglipoor 8200 square miles.

The ultimate court of appeal, in civil matters, sits in the city of Calcutta, and is styled the Sudder Dewanny Adawlet. To this court all causes respecting personal property beyond 5000 rupees value, are appealable: with regard to real property, it is ascertained by certain rules differing according to the nature and tenure of the property. From this court an appeal lies to the king in council, if the value of the property concerned amounts to £5000 sterling.

Under the Mahommedan government suitors pleaded their own causes, and the practice continued until 1793, when regular native advocates were appointed. These pleaders are chosen out of the Mahommedan college at Calcutta, and Hindoo college at Benares; and the rate of fees is fixed by public regulation. This institution insures suitors against negligence or misconduct on the part, either of the judge, or of his native assistant; the advocates being often as conversant in the business of the court as either of these officers. As an ultimate security for the purity of justice, provisions have been made against the corruption of those who administer it. The receiving of a sum of money or other valuable gift, or

present, or under colour thereof, by a British subject in the service of the Company, is deemed to be taken by extortion, and is a misdemeanor at law.

Written pleadings in the native languages have been introduced, for the purpose of bringing litigation to a point, and enforcing in legal proceedings as much precision as the habits of the people will admit. Before this modification, the charge and defence consisted of confused oral complaints, loudly urged on one side, and as loudly reiterated on the other. In receiving evidence great indulgence is granted to the scruples of caste, and the prejudices against the public appearance of females so prevalent in eastern countries.

Select cases, civil and criminal, are annually published, which reports, by diffusing a knowledge of the legal principles established in the courts of the Sudder Dewanny and Sudder Nizamut Adawlets, are productive of essential benefit in the general administration of justice, and tend to prevent litigation. Indeed, it is impossible in this, or any other country, to maintain tribunals for the investigation of all the endless disputes and differences which arise between individuals, in all the complicated concerns of private life. It is only by the establishment of fixed and definitive principles of adjudication, and by affording the community some convenient medium for ascertaining these principles, and of applying them to their own affairs, that the mass of litigation, which threatens to render the administration of justice a task exceeding the powers of those on whom it devolves, can be kept within any reasonable bounds. This is eminently the case in the British isles, where the number of judges, considered with reference to the wealth and population, is extremely limited; but where individuals seldom experience any difficulty in obtaining the legal information necessary to prevent their exposing themselves to the embarrassment and expense attendant on the prosecution of suits at law. At present the principal objects to be accomplished in Bengal, are the means of defining the right of the peasantry, and of adjusting, with facility, such differences as arise between landlord and tenant.

The Mahommedan law continues ostensibly the ground work of the criminal jurisprudence of the country; but although the name and many of the external forms of that code be retained, its execution is so corrected in essentials, that it may more properly be regarded as the administration of British criminal justice. At present, the system of criminal law, as promulgated in the provinces subordinate to the Bengal Presidency, is, in reality, a system of jurisprudence founded on the natural principles of justice; which form, or ought to form, the base of every criminal code. In civil matters, the Hindoos and Mahommedans substantially enjoy their respective usages. The prejudices of both are treated with indulgence, and the respect which Asiatic manners enjoins to women of rank, is scrupulously enforced.

In the criminal department, no offence has occupied so much of the time and attention of the government, and strenuous exertions of its servants, as dacoity, or gang robbery; which, for an astonishing period of time, baffled the united efforts of every department of the service, but at length, by unremitting perseverance and vigilance, if not wholly eradicated, has been greatly diminished. Treating of this subject, generally, it may be observed, that gang robbery, the scourge under which Bengal suffered from the first acquisition of the province, until it reached its acme in 1807, had in 1814 been nearly suppressed. Robberies, in the ordinary sense of the expression, are still committed; but dacoity, considered as a crime distinct from all others by its peculiar malignity, and by involving the perpetrators in other crimes of a most atrocious and sanguinary character, has been nearly extinguished. This great object was not accomplished by any precipitate or arbitrary measures, or by any complicated machinery—but by the selection of able and zealous magistrates, by limiting the authority of the native officers within the narrowest bounds compatible with the efficiency of their offices, and by occasionally strengthening the already existing European and native establishments. The Sunderbunds have always been regarded as peculiarly adapted for the reception and concealment of river pirates, yet even in this labyrinth of wood, water, and rank vegetation, great progress has been made in the extirpation of gang robbery.

In the ceded and conquered provinces, although less progress has apparently been made in the suppression of crimes than in the old territories, yet manifest traces are perceptible of the influence of a regular system of civil polity on the great mass of the people. On the first acquisition of these provinces, one of the greatest evils was the private war which the proprietors of estates and individuals carried on against each other. Vindictive assassination, for real or imaginary injuries, was also a crime of frequent occurrence; and both these enormities had their origin in the same cause; viz. the weakness of the preceding governments, and the want of regular tribunals to take cognizance of wrongs committed by individuals on their fellow subjects. Considerable progress has been made towards the suppression of both these crimes, but murders perpetrated by the class of people named thugs, still continue in spite of the increased exertions of the police. In the Upper Provinces, highway robbery and gang robbery are seldom known to prevail together; the former usually commencing when an effectual check has been given to the latter.

The prevention of incursions from the independent states, lying on an open and extended frontier, has always been a task of peculiar difficulty---and to this species of annoyance the district of Rungpoor is still greatly exposed; as is

also that of Purneah to incursions of banditti from the Morung. On the side of Agra such offences have become less frequent, and a check has been given to them along the frontier of the present Nabob of Oude, who has cheerfully seconded the efforts of the British government towards the suppression of these marauders.

With respect to the more ordinary offences of robbery, house breaking and theft, they appear still to exist to a lamentable degree; yet on the whole are less prevalent than formerly. In consequence of the introduction of the chokeydarry system (municipal and private watchmen), singularly good order has been established in the city of Dacca, and nearly corresponding effects produced by the same means in the cities of Moorshedabad and Patna. Considerable progress has also been made in establishing similar arrangements at the stations of the magistrates in all the Bengal districts; but it has been too much the practice to impose duties upon public officers in the judicial department, far exceeding the utmost exertion of their natural, or of any human faculties. As the police improves, it is probable a greater proportion of the crimes perpetrated are brought under the cognizance of the judicial authorities, than while it was in a more inefficient state; much may also be frequently done by a magistrate, with very little to shew for it: and notwithstanding his efforts, the suppression of public crimes may for a length of time, baffle every exertion.

Although it must be admitted, that great progress has been made in the establishment of a solid and efficient system of police, the commission of public crimes, however, still exists in a degree, which requires the utmost efforts of the public officers to suppress, and in their suppression, the credit of the British government is implicated. The progress already made in the reform of the police, affords the most substantial ground for hope, that the commission of crimes of enormity may be confined within as narrow limits as in any other country of the same extent and population; nor can too much solicitude be shewn in securing the persons and property of the natives, now wholly dependent on us for protection, against their own evil propensities.

Constituted as the government now is, the zemindars could not with justice be made responsible for the value of property plundered on their estates, unless they were authorized and required to entertain establishments for the seizure of public offenders; an arrangement which would in effect transfer the charge of the police to the zemindars, and again open a door to all the abuses committed by them in former times, when they were entrusted with the police of their respective estates. At present it scarcely ever happens that the zemindars resist the execution of a decree of the civil court, or assemble their people afterwards for the purpose of fighting and dispossessing the person in whose favour the de-

cision has been awarded. By this class, however, the large portion of lands, allotted during the Mogul government for the maintenance of village watchmen, have been long ago resumed, and have wholly disappeared from the public records. It is consequently to be apprehended, that if waste lands were again set apart for that purpose, a similar absorption would take place, as soon as they had attained a certain stage of cultivation.

There is no crime more frequent in Bengal and Hindostan, generally, than the murdering of children for the sake of the gold and silver ornaments, with which, in spite of every exhortation on the part of the British government and its functionaries, they persevere in adorning them. These horrid crimes are usually perpetrated by friends, neighbours, and relations, unable to resist the tempting opportunity; and the parents would almost appear voluntarily to dress out their child for a victim. The frequent occurrence of the crime at different periods, attracted the attention of government, and the courts of circuit were consulted as to the possibility of suggesting any preventive expedient, that would not excite dissatisfaction among the natives by such interference with their domestic usages; but nothing could be devised, except increased vigilance in detecting, and rigorous enforcement and publicity of the punishment.

In 1813, great progress had been made, and a vast expense incurred, in putting the jails of the ceded and conquered provinces into that condition which is essential to the health and reasonable comfort of the prisoners. The following statement will shew the number of convicts and other description of prisoners, in confinement on the 31st of December, 1814, in the several district and city jails of the lower provinces.

Calcutta division.		Moorshedabad division.	
Burdwan	761	Boglipoor	307
Jungle Mahals	371	Purneah	591
Midnapoor	706	Dinagepoor	1,039
Cuttack	885	Rungpoor	666
Jessore	573	Rajshahy	717
Nuddea	1,119	Birbhoom	391
Hooghly	448	City of Moorshedabad	451
Chandernagore	157		
24 Pergunnahs	246	Total	4,102
Calcutta Suburbs	503		
Allypoor jail	905		
Total	5,974		

Patna Division.		Dacca Division.	
Ramghur	478	Mymunsingh	523
Bahar	523	Silhet	232
Tirhoot	1,012	Tiperah	842
Sarun	532	Chittagong	254
Shahabad	392	Backergunge	407
City of Patna	523	Dacca Jelalpoor	428
		City of Dacca	349
Total	3,460	Total	3,035
		Grand Total	16,571

It had been often remarked, that the public atrocities which formerly prevailed could never have been suffered to continue, had the supreme government possessed an accurate knowledge of the extent of the evil. To remedy this defect, and ensure speedy intelligence, superintendants of the police for the upper and lower provinces were appointed in 1812. These officers visit each district in rotation and report of the state of its inhabitants; so that the Governor General in Council cannot remain long uninformed of the prevalence of public crimes in any part of the country, and with that knowledge, the remedy best adapted for the evil can of course be with promptitude applied.

As dacoits, or gang robbers, occupy so prominent a part in the criminal jurisprudence of Bengal, a few more observations towards the developement of their character, may be usefully employed. Fifty years ago the rivers of Bengal were nearly impassable to unarmed boats, on account of the immense bands of pirates who roamed unchecked through every part of the province; at present, except occasionally in some of the large rivers near the sea, the inland navigation is wholly free from every perilous obstruction. Among the dacoits in Bengal many instances occur of whole families practising robbery from generation to generation, and individuals among them boast that their progenitors were hanged or died in perpetual imprisonment. Their leaders succeed each other like officers of a regular establishment, and being all predestinarians, they are indifferent as to the result of their hazardous career. Nor do they attach obloquy to the name of dacoit: in that character they are something; as labourers or cultivators nothing. Besides this, they to the last entertain hopes of escaping punishment, either by flying for concealment to the creeks, woods, jungles, or low islands overgrown with rank weeds, or when captured, by the expectation that the terror their name inspires will prevent evidence from appearing against them. When they are at last brought to the fatal tree, the dacoits who suffer capital punish-

ment meet their fate with the greatest sang froid, and the exhibition is considered by the lookers on as a sort of gratis entertainment. The penitence and contrition shewn by criminals in England when the sentence is on the point of execution, and which makes such a serious and salutary impression on the spectators, is never observed in this country, where in fact the felons are much more afraid of transportation than of death.

In Bengal robbers are not shunned and hated as in Europe. On the contrary, they have homes, often land and cattle, and are not only associated with, but are frequently men of influence in their villages, although their profession be known. This can only be ascribed to a general absence of the moral principle, which applies to Mahommedans as well as Hindoos, the lower classes of the former having evidently adopted many of the worst parts of Hindoo idolatry. The dacoits of both castes, are not only unrestrained by terrors of conscience, but affect to sanctify their execrable deeds by offerings and invocations to the goddess Cali; and that human blood is now seldom shed on these occasions, is to be attributed to the introduction of the British system of police, which, with all its defects, is perfection compared with that which preceded it. The great mass of the Bengalese are certainly not constitutionally brutal or inexorable; on the contrary, they are naturally mild and placable; yet it must be admitted that the criminal records of the province will furnish such instances of cruelty and ferocity in dacoits, as perhaps the history of no country in Europe can parallel.

To the universal prevalence of perjury may also be attributed the long continuance and existing frequency of gang robbery; and to such a pitch of shameless audacity has this crime long attained, that the judge is often obliged to investigate the character of the witness with more anxiety than that of the criminal. In 1800, a zemindarry dewan, and by caste a Brahmin, after having circumstantially sworn to the nature, number, and authors of the wounds inflicted on two of his cutcherry (office) servants, alleged to have been murdered in an attempt to dispossess him of the cutcherry, scarcely blushed when the two men were produced alive and unhurt in court, and merely pleaded in extenuation, that if he had not sworn as instructed he would have lost his place. The little obligation attached by the natives to an oath, appears in a great degree to proceed from the nature of their superstition, the degraded attributes of their deities, as well as the total absence of moral instruction from their system of education, and its necessarian tendency. Hence originates the general exclamation of criminals when convicted of murder, that it was their destiny, and they seldom or never acknowledge any other motive. It is probable, that, in time, the exemplary punishments inflicted will deaden the alacrity with which crimes have hitherto been committed, and the steady and just administration of the laws

go a certain way towards imbuing the inhabitants with a moral principle, or something resembling it. At present they have neither, at least in the true Christian sense of the word, but sufficient time for the effectual operation of the British system has not yet elapsed, so as to occasion any solid improvement of character.

It has long been a general complaint, that the Mahommedan law is not adequately comprehensive for the punishment of crimes, there being no express law for the punishment of crimes against the state, forgery, perjury, receiving of stolen goods, and accomplices, except in cases of murder. For the most part, as used in the courts of justice, it consists of a few sentences extracted from the koran, and from the Huddees, or the verbal opinions of Mahommed and some of the Imaums, his immediate successors, which have been collected and recorded; but on the application of which commentators differ materially. To prevent any detriment from this discordance of interpretation, the British government has promulgated a regulation, enacting, that the determination of only two of the commentators, Yusef and Mahommed, shall be adhered to as a general rule; but the code, notwithstanding this amendment, continues very defective. The following are the principal innovations made by the British system on the Mahommedan criminal law; viz. the abolition of mutilation and all barbarous punishments, (such as impaling, &c.); the depriving the heirs of the murdered persons of the dangerous power of pardoning the murderers; and the making the guilt or innocence of the persons charged with murder depend rather on the evident intention of the prisoner, than on the nature of the weapon.

None but the public officers, and those who are candidates for office, can be said to possess a general knowledge of the regulations. Each class know something of such regulations as concern them respectively, but no instance has occurred of a native who possessed a full, distinct, and comprehensive view of the British regulations, any more than of the civil and political state of the country. All are likewise equally ignorant of the koran and shastras, except a few Hindoo pundits, and Mahommedan law officers; but under the present constitution of the country the most profound knowledge of both would but little promote the administration of executive justice. The natives have certainly great personal confidence in the Company's servants, which, with the acknowledged purity of the system, and the difficulty of attaining improper ends by unworthy means, must, in process of time, meliorate their moral character, and teach them to exchange fruitless practices of low cunning and intrigue, for habits of honest industry and exertion.

Much might be said respecting the characters of the Bengalese zemindars, a most important class of natives, but it would be very difficult to render the subject intelligible to the European reader, for whose use this work is principally

intended. Like the great mass of the people, a Bengalese zemindar considers only the present hour, is improvident of the future, and most of them are mere puppets in the hands of the unprincipled and rapacious managers of their estates. They are consequently soon involved in difficulties, from which they are unable to extricate themselves, and their estates are sold, but their ruin they impute to the strictness and severity of government in the exaction of the revenue. It was no doubt the intention of the government to confer an important benefit on this class of subjects, by abolishing the custom of imprisoning landholders for arrears of revenue; but they assert it has been found by melancholy experience, that the system of sales and attachments, substituted in its stead, has in the course of a very few years reduced most of the great zemindars in Bengal to distress and beggary, and effected a greater mutation of landed property in the province, than perhaps ever happened in any age or country as the mere consequence of internal regulations. Blind and insensible as the natives are to consequences, they will hardly ever give themselves the trouble of guarding against a distant evil, or undertake any thing for the sake of a remote advantage, more than the mere stimulus of money being necessary to rouse them. To this apathy and supineness in their dispositions, joined to habits of dissipation, extravagance, and disunion, is to be ascribed the ruin of many zemindars; but in other cases this effect has resulted, from their estates being over assessed, and the difficulty they experienced in collecting the rents due by the under tenants and cultivators.

In this province there are many female zemindars, generally subservient to, and under the management of the family Brahmin, who controuls their consciences. This person has his own private interests to attend to, and, without appearing, exerts an influence over the public business. The ostensible managing agent submits to the controul of a concealed authority, which he must conciliate; and the interests of the state and the zemindar equally bend to it. A Brahmin in Bengal not only obtains a lease of land on better terms, but enjoys exemptions from various impositions and extortions, to which the less sacred classes are exposed.

Throughout the whole of Bengal there is very little distinction to be observed between the houses of the meanest peasant and those of the zemindar, which is probably, in part, owing to the rule of inheritance, which prevails both with the Mahommedans and Hindoos, and in families is an everlasting source of jealousy, enmity, and dispute. Property of every sort, being universally liable to equality of partition among the heirs, must, if persevered in, soon reduce all to the same level, and its progress to the lowest degree be accelerated with an increasing momentum. Another consequence of this community of property is, that it deadens all individual exertions for its improvement.

The great increase of suits has been the subject of much animadversion, yet it may be traced to a cause highly honourable to the British government, viz. to the increased value of every species of property, but more especially of landed property, and to the confidence felt by the natives of that security. This confidence leads them to prosecute for the recovery of rights, real or imaginary, which in other times, and under other circumstances, they would have abandoned as unworthy of attention; which sentiment has been greatly strengthened by the strict adherence on the part of government to the terms of the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered perpetual. In 1802, some landholders were still apprehensive of having the assessment on their lands increased, but time has eradicated this error, and the impression is universal that property is not liable to confiscation, or gross violation by the supreme, or any authority. It was formerly the custom to bury in the ground treasure and valuable goods, and to conceal the acquisition of wealth; the latter is still done, but generally from dread of dacoits, or gang robbers, for they well know that it can be only under the sanction of a law, that new impositions of any kind can take place. Formerly in these provinces the cultivators of the soil when oppressed beyond endurance, were accustomed to assemble in crowds with ploughs and other implements, and demand justice with violent and outrageous clamour; at present they proceed by regular process, and it is to be apprehended are becoming too prone to litigate about trifles. Coerced as they are by the strong arm of British power, individuals have now no other mode of encroaching on their respective rights, except by harrassing each other through the forms of law in the civil and criminal courts, and of this vindictive weapon they are both by nature and inclination much disposed to make a liberal use.

Religious buildings and public edifices of great size are now seldom constructed in Bengal. What wealth remains with the natives is more widely diffused than formerly, and the fortunes accumulated by Europeans are invariably remitted to Europe. This latter class now occupy the stations of those native officers, who in former times, either from motives of charity or ostentation, raised those buildings of utility, which are now only to be traced out by their ruins; and in fact the light soil, alluvial situation, and exuberant vegetation of Bengal, are hostile to the permanence of any erections however well constructed originally. With a particular class of the natives it is a very general complaint, that they cannot now procure a livelihood in the British provinces. They allege that under former governments, the number of troops entertained, and the various descriptions of servants required for state and for the revenue collections, afforded means of employment which are now lost; the troops and officers under the British government being circumscribed to the smallest possible scale.

On this account, and probably also the equality of ranks in the distribution of justice, some of the principal inhabitants, especially the Mahommedans, cannot be reconciled to any foreign government, and, reflecting with regret on the loss of their former privileges, view with disgust the impartial system of British jurisprudence, which has wholly neutralized their importance in society. In the course of time, it is to be expected, that this sensation will subside, and either give place to a conviction of the advantages resulting from the exchange, or be wholly forgotten by people nearly insensible to either the past or future. One thing is certain, that owing to the long duration of domestic quiet, they have already forgotten their former condition of turbulence and anarchy, when scarce a year passed over without their being disturbed by the rumour, or terrified with the atrocities of actual warfare.

It is extremely difficult to say whether the great bulk of the natives be decidedly attached to the British government or not, their common speech to European functionaries being a mere rant of praise and flattery; and it may be presumed that those inhabitants with whom the British associate, are not deficient in extolling the happy effects of the British domination, and doubtless if they look to the neighbouring states, and draw a comparison, the praise may not be thought very extravagant. Generally speaking, it is probable that the first class of Hindoo inhabitants are dissatisfied, chiefly from motives of ambition, the middling satisfied, and the lower well pleased with the British government, which has so essentially meliorated their condition. On the other hand the higher ranks of Mahommedans, whose government we have subverted, in addition to their religious prejudices, have many political reasons to detest our predominance. The men of opulence now in Bengal are the Hindoo merchants, bankers, and banyans of Calcutta; with a few at the principal provincial stations. The greatest men formerly were the Mahommedan rulers, whom the British have superseded, and the Hindoo zemindars. These two classes are now reduced to poverty, and the lower classes look up to the official servants and domestics of the English gentlemen. No native has any motive to distinguish himself greatly in the army, as he cannot rise higher than a soubahdar, a rank inferior to an ensign.

It has always formed part of the system of British policy to endeavour to raise up a class of respectable landed proprietors, on which account great encouragement has always been given to the permanence in families of landed property, but it is to be feared without success, principally owing to the invincible folly of the native landholder, and the nature of their law of inheritance, which parcels out their estates into the minutest fractions. At present, it must be confessed, that there is no intermediate class between the sovereign and the common

people; the distance between the two is consequently infinite. Notwithstanding the long duration of the Mahommedan sway, it had very little effect on the mass of the people, and our government must have still less, because we do not, like the Mahommedans, mix and coalesce with them; they consequently appear as remote from adopting English customs, as the English are from adopting their's.

Respecting the nature of the British government, and of its external relations, the natives remain superlatively ignorant. In Calcutta a degree of curiosity may sometimes be observed, and a desire to converse on state affairs; but on these occasions the best informed natives always betray an extreme ignorance. The most learned have no knowledge of the law of nations, nor do they suppose the measures of the supreme power to be founded in equity or moderation; the idea of a supreme executive government prescribing laws and limits to its own authority, not presenting a very intelligible idea to a native. On this account many of them still consider the regulations of government as only temporary, and liable to be altered and rescinded by the interest or caprice of the power that enacted them.

Although the bulk of the natives cannot be described as decidedly attached to the British government, which they certainly do not understand, that government is nevertheless very strong and secure from any serious internal commotion. No government ever stood more independent of public opinion. To the inhabitants, the political state of the country is a complete incomprehensible mystery; yet it is probable that since our effectual establishment in 1765, no native ever dreamed of subverting the government. In this point of view the mass of natives are most ignorant and helpless, without concert or combination, and no oppression of the ruling power would produce any resistance that might not be quelled by a company of sepoys. The power of the British government in Bengal is completely despotic, and the submission of its subjects perfect and unqualified. This is in fact so complete, as to preclude the necessity of coercion, or intimidation of any kind; all appearance, consequently, of military interference may be kept wholly out of sight, and it will only be when European laws, religion and literature, come to be disseminated, that it will be necessary to draw the reins tighter, to prove that we possess power irresistible to command obedience. The army is powerful, and may with certainty be depended on, so long as they are regularly paid. The sepoys, like the rest of the natives are entirely uninstructed as to the form of government, policy of their rulers, or justice of their wars, and in this ignorance and apathy consists our strength.

It is a truth perfectly obvious, that the peculiar interests of the British govern-

ment recommend the happiness of their native subjects. On the acquisition of these territories, the primary object certainly was, to discover what could be obtained from them, not how they might be most benefited. In process of time, however, it became necessary to devise how they might be benefited, in order that the same amount of resources might continue to be drawn from them. Persons who remember the state of this province in 1769, and 1789, the thirtieth of the revolution, are inclined to think that it exhibited more appearance of opulence at the former than at the latter period, an opinion confirmed by the records of the province for the 12 years subsequent to 1769; the decline continuing long after the effects of the famine had ceased to operate. But without resorting to local mismanagement, the nature of the connexion which binds Bengal to Britain, will sufficiently account for the tendency of its internal condition to deteriorate. All the offices of trust or emolument, civil and military, and the highest lines of commerce, are in the hands of strangers, who after a temporary residence depart with the capital they have accumulated; while under native rulers even the extortions of rapacity, and the drains of tribute, again entered circulation, and promoted in some form the territorial industry. Under its present constitution the remittance, or rather tribute to Britain, carries off every year a large share of the produce, for which nothing is returned.

The body of servants who fill the commercial, political, financial, and judicial offices in Bengal, are supplied by annual recruits of young officers under the appellation of writers, who generally leave England for India about the age of 18—when they have completed three years residence in the country they are eligible to an office of £500 per annum emolument, upwards; after six years to £1500 per annum, upwards; after nine to £3000, upwards; and after twelve years to £4000 per annum, or upwards. The directors of the Company generally appoint annually about 30 writers for the civil service at the three presidencies. In 1811, the number of civil servants in Bengal was 391; under the Madras presidency 206, and under that of Bombay 74; in all 671. The pay, allowances, and emoluments of the civil power in Bengal, including European uncovenanted assistants, amounted in 1811, to £1,045,400. The diplomatic residents or ambassadors, mostly taken from the civil service, are stationed at Delhi, Hyderabad, Lucknow, Travancore, Mysore, Nagpoor, Poona, and with Dowlet Row Sindia. In 1818, the total number of civil servants on the Bengal establishment was 459, and of medical 319.

The native or Sepoy troops under the three presidencies, in 1818, including the non-commissioned officers, who are also natives, amounted to 182,838 regulars, and 24,741 irregulars, besides 5,875 invalids and pensioners; grand total 213,000.

The European officers attached to this force under the Bengal presidency were 2,024, who rise by seniority. In the spring of 1815, reckoning the augmentation, and including all the provincial and local corps, the Bengal only amounted to 80,000 fighting men.

It has become usual for the government at home to send to India a certain number of regiments from the army of His Majesty, which are for the time placed at the disposal of the Company, and co-operate with the army immediately subject to that corporation. About 22,000 King's troops are now usually stationed in India. The commander in chief of both King's and Company's forces is usually the same person, nominated both by the King and by the Company to the command of their respective armies, acting by virtue of a commission from each. In 1811, the total number of King's troops in India was 21,488; the expense £1,154,695 per annum; and the Company's Bengal army of all descriptions of regulars was 58,690 men.

During the revolutionary war the annual appointment of cadets for the three presidencies averaged 120 for the military, and 10 for the marine service. In 1811, the number of officers in the Company's service on the Bengal establishment was 1,571; the pay and allowances amounted to £872,088 per annum. The number of resident Europeans out of the service in the provinces under the Bengal presidency, Calcutta included, in 1810, were computed at 2,000 persons. (*Public documents, manuscript and printed, Sir Henry Strachey, Burrish Crisp, R. Grant, Ernst, Welland, I. D. Paterson, Keating, C. Grant, Mill, E. Colebrooke, Lowther, &c. &c. &c.*

CHAPTER VII.

COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION, EDUCATION AND LEARNING, HOUSES, INNS, PLANTATIONS, FOOD, DRINKING, FOWLS, DOGS, BRAHMINY BULLS, MALE AND FEMALE DRESS, MUSIC, VARIOUS TRADES, SLAVERY, RELIGION, SECTS AND CASTES, SUMMARY OF THE MORAL CHARACTER OF THE BENGALESE.

BEYOND Bengal the natives of the northern mountains prove by their features a Tartar origin: they people the northern boundary of Bengal. On the eastern hills and in the adjacent plains, the peculiar features of the inhabitants shew with equal certainty a distinct origin; and the elevated tract which Bengal includes on the west, is peopled from a stock obviously distinct, or rather by

several races of mountaineers, the probable aborigines of the country. The latter are most evidently distinguished by their religion, character, language and manners, as well as by their features, from the Hindoo natives. Under various denominations they people the vast mountainous tract which occupies the centre of India, and some of their tribes have not yet emerged from the savage state.

In the mixed population of the middle districts, the Hindoos may be easily distinguished from the Mahommedans. Among the latter may be discriminated the Mogul, the Afghan, and their immediate descendants, from the naturalized Musselmaun. Among the Hindoos may be recognized the peculiar features of a Bengalese, contrasted with those of the Hindostany. The native Bengalese are generally stigmatized as cowardly and pusillanimous; but it should not be forgotten that at an early period of our military history, they almost entirely filled several of our battalions, and and distinguished themselves as brave and active soldiers. It must however be acknowledged that throughout Hindostan, the Bengalese name has never been held in repute; and that the descendants of foreigners, settled in Bengal, are fond of retracing their origin to the countries of their ancestors.

In this province the first rudiments of education are usually given in small day schools, under the tuition of teachers, who are poorly rewarded and little respected, and who are quite different from the Gooroos (family priests) who instruct in religion. Children usually go to school at the age of five, and are instructed to read and write at the same time. They begin with tracing letters on the floor with a pencil of steatite, commencing with the consonants, and afterwards joining the vowels so as to form syllables. In five or six months they are thus able to read and write. They then begin to write cyphers on palmyra leaves, with a reed and ink, and at the same time learn numeration, and the subdivision of weights and measures, and of time belonging to astronomy, or rather astrology; the whole occupying 18 months. After this progress they begin to write on paper, and to learn to keep accounts, and at the same time to multiply, divide, and subtract, with the rule of practice, in which the usual Indian arithmetic consists.

In this scheme of instruction, accounts and arithmetic are divided into two distinct departments; one for agricultural and the other for commercial affairs. When both are learned, the former is usually taught first, but not many of the natives acquire that knowledge, or are able to tell how many begahs, or fractions, a rectangled parallelogram contains; for the Hindoo geometry, as far as is known in common practice, proceeds no further. Practical surveyors have no mode of ascertaining the extent of irregular figures, but by reducing them to rectangled parallelograms, in which they are guided merely by the eye or rough estimation;

and even in measuring parallelograms they are destitute of any instrument, that can ascertain whether or not all the angles be equal.

In Bengal, parents are generally satisfied with instructing their children in mercantile accounts, and in keeping a very full day or waste book, in which every transaction is carefully recorded, and to which is added a kind of ledger; but their books do not admit of a regular balance like what is called the Italian method. It is only arithmetic, commercial and agricultural, that is taught at school; the application to mensuration and to the keeping of books, either of a merchant or landholder, are acquired in some office or shop, where the youth commences as an assistant, and learns the style and manner of correspondence. The use of the sharp iron style, for writing on bark and leaves, although the original manner of Hindoo writing, has been entirely abandoned, and a reed pen, and a bamboo inkstand, introduced by the Mahommedans, are universally employed, even in writing on the palmyra leaf, which substance is also still used for works of value, being more durable than the paper fabricated in the province. Besides the paper, the natives pay for writing, rather less than one rupee for every 32,000 letters, at which rate the Mahabharat cost 60 rupees; the Ramayuna 24; the Sree Bhagavat 18 rupees; and other books in proportion to their contents. It is an excellence of the Bengalese language that every letter has a uniform undeviating sound, its pronunciation is consequently remarkably easy. Every fifth consonant has a nasal sound, and every second consonant is an aspirate to that which precedes it. Neither is its idiomatic construction involved or perplexed with genders and irregular verbs, so that there are probably few languages, either ancient or modern, of such easy acquisition. The Bengalese books are mostly single leaved, with a flat board at the top, and another at the bottom, which are tied with cords and wrapped in a cloth.

It has long been remarked, that science and literature are in a progressive state of decay among the natives of India, the number of learned men being not only diminished, but the circle of learning, even among those who devote themselves to it, greatly contracted. The abstract sciences are abandoned, polite literature neglected, and no branch of learning cultivated, but what is connected with the peculiar religious sects and doctrines, or with the astrology of the people. The immediate consequence of this state of things is the disuse, and even actual loss of many valuable books; and it has been feared by many, that unless government interfered with a fostering hand, the revival of letters among the natives would become hopeless, from a want of books, and of persons qualified to explain them.

The principal cause of the present neglected state of literature in India, is to be traced to the want of that encouragement, which was formerly afforded to

it by princes, chieftains, and opulent individuals under the native governments. Such encouragements must always operate as a strong incentive to study, and to literary exertions, more especially in India, where the learned professions have little if any further support. The justness of these observations might be illustrated, by a detailed consideration of the former and present state of science and literature, at the principal seats of Hindoo learning, viz. Benares, Tirhoot, and Nuddea; and the favours conferred, not only by kings and princes, but also by zemindars, on persons who distinguished themselves by a successful cultivation of letters at those places. It would equally exhibit the present neglected state of learning at those once celebrated seminaries, and shew that the cultivation of letters is now confined to the few surviving persons who had been patronized by the native princes, and others, during the former governments, or to such of the immediate descendants of those persons as had imbibed a love of science from their parents. In 1809, there still existed at the advanced age of 108 years, Jagatnath Tercapanchana, an eminent pundit, who resided at Tirveny, 30 miles from Calcutta; where, surrounded by four generations of his descendants, in number near 100, he continued to give daily lectures to his pupils on the principles of law and philosophy.

It is not, however, the national character that is affected by the present neglected state of literature. The ignorance of the natives not only excludes them from the enjoyment of all those comforts and benefits, which the serious cultivation of letters is calculated to afford, but, operating as it does throughout the whole mass of the population, tends materially to obstruct the measures adopted for their better government.

Influenced by the above train of reasoning, the Bengal government in 1811, during the administration of Lord Minto, adopted certain measures for the encouragement of erudition and science among the natives, by a system of liberal salaries, and donations to the different colleges and seminaries; but it is greatly to be doubted whether, under existing circumstances, it be practicable to reimbue the natives with a taste for their own peculiar style of learning, or, if practicable, desirable. With the prospect before them of a long and intimate connection with the European powers, it would probably prove a much more advantageous measure, to direct their views towards European literature and languages, as tending both to the improvement of their morals, and leading ultimately gradually to the tranquil adoption of a superior religion. With this object the Hindoo and Mahommedan languages might be suffered by imperceptible steps to descend gently into the grave, and take rank among the dead with the Greek and Latin.

The genuine Bengalese towns are not arranged into streets, but into divisions

of east, west, north, south, and centre. In one part the Hindoos reside, in another the Mahommedans, and in another the native Portugueze. The Hindoo portion is farther subdivided into the quarters of the Brahmins, scribes, weavers, oil makers, washermen, barbers, cultivators, potters, &c.; but this distribution is not always strictly observed. The style of house peculiar to Bengal consists of a hut with a pent roof constructed of two sloping sides, which meet in a ridge forming the segment of a circle, so that it has the resemblance of a boat overturned. This kind of hut is called by the natives banggala, a name which has been altered by Europeans to bungalow, and applied by them to all their buildings in the cottage style, although many of them are excellent brick houses, adorned with the forms of Grecian architecture. Among the genuine Bengalese, the poor man has one hut for himself and cattle; richer men increase the number without altering the plan of the building. When the materials are at hand, the walls of the hut are made of mud, and the floor is always raised a foot or two above the level of the plain, but not always so high as to be above the water during the rainy season. To remedy this inconvenience, a platform of bamboos is constructed at one end of the hut, and upon this the family sit and sleep, but to reach the door they must wade through the water and mud. When the soil is too loose for making walls, the sides of the hut are formed of hurdles, which are usually made of straw, grass, or reeds, confined between sticks or split bamboos tied together. The frame of the house usually consists entirely of bamboos, and it is only in the houses of the very wealthy that wooden posts or beams are used, neither polished or painted, and seldom fastened with nails. The door in general is the only aperture in the hut, crevices excepted, and is commonly shut by a hurdle, which is tied to the upper part of the door, and falls down like a valve. Wooden folding doors are only used by the great, and there are few houses that have openings like windows to admit air or light. If the house be intended for a shop, one side of the roof is extended four or five feet beyond the wall, is supported by a row of bamboos, and forms a gallery or veranda, which serves for a shop. In this province it is not the custom with the natives to build one house with a number of different apartments sufficient for the purposes of the family, on the contrary, except among the great, a separate house or hut is generally for each particular purpose, and these huts collectively are usually surrounded by a fence. The dwellings of the poorer classes being placed on the bare earth are extremely damp and unhealthy in a climate subject to such excessive moisture, and one of the greatest practical improvements of their condition would be, the introduction of huts or houses raised on posts, like those of India beyond the Ganges, which are infinitely drier, healthier, and freer from vermin than those of Bengal.

The houses of the rich are of brick and flat roofed. In some instances they

consist of three buildings, two stories high; one in front, one on each side, and a high wall before, in the centre of which is a door. The windows are mere air holes. In the first story of the house the idol is set up; the upper rooms are occupied by the family. The two sides below are formed into verandas, and when important religious ceremonies are performing, an awning is thrown over the outer court, into which common spectators are admitted; the Brahmins and upper classes occupying the verandas, while the females look through the crevices from above. Their sitting and sleeping rooms contain neither pictures, looking glasses, book cases, tables, chairs, nor indeed scarcely any thing except a loose mat, some vessels of brass, a hookah, and the dishes used for pawn.

Throughout the province, except in the large towns, there is no inn, nor place of accommodation for the mere traveller, yet in almost every small town he may procure an empty house or hut where he may have shelter. The route of a person travelling in this manner must of course be directed from one town to another, and also in many directions, for, notwithstanding the immense population, these are often situated at a great distance, the Bengalese delighting in a country life. Making roads, digging tanks, and planting trees, among the Hindoos, are religious duties, and almost every rich man performs one or other, or often the whole; but as the inducement is to obtain celestial favour, public utility is on these occasions little consulted, and the works frequently turn out nuisances. The plantation usually consists of trees totally useless, or of sour resinous mangoes, and soon becomes jungle, the harbour of wild beasts which devour travellers: the tank declines to a dirty puddle, which is soon choked up with weeds, generating diseases, and the road is wholly useless to passengers, as it does not lead from one market place to another, but commonly from the house of the founder to some temple which he chuses to frequent, or to some tank or river, where he performs his ablutions.

Many intelligent persons have been of opinion that vegetable food highly seasoned with capsicum, and water to drink, is the diet best adapted for a warm climate, but the justice of this notion there is much reason to question. The natives of Bengal, who subsist exactly in this manner, have extremely weak constitutions, incapable of resisting the slightest change of air or water. It is more probable, that those who enjoy a diet which includes animal food and strong liquors in moderate quantities, are best able to support the influence of unhealthy climates, and the sudden alterations of the atmosphere. Mahommed has also had encomiums for his prohibition of strong liquors, upon the supposition that excessive inebriety would throw the natives of warm climates into most ungovernable paroxysms of fury. The fact, however, is exactly the reverse, as nothing can be quieter than a drunken Bengally. On these occasions he either

retires with his wife or mistress to some private place, where both parties drink until satiated, or he swallows so much liquor at once, as to deprive himself both of reason and voluntary motion, and falls down prone on the earth a stupid block. It is seldom or never that, like the Centaurs and Lapithæ, he engages in that boisterous conviviality which generates feuds, broils, and quarrels.

The extracts of poppy and hemp are by native moralists considered more innocent than spiritous liquors, yet they are much more apt than distilled spirits to lead to the most beastly private intoxication. A Brahmin who intoxicates himself with these drugs is considered highly blameable, but it does not involve the loss of caste. Many of the lowest tribes use them whenever they can, but it is only the very lowest that will drink spirits openly. All women chew tobacco, but it is only the females of unclean tribes and prostitutes that smoke. No man loses caste by smoking tobacco, and all practise it, except a few pundits, who content themselves with snuffing, which is considered more dignified than smoking. Men seldom chew tobacco.

In general a Hindoo man of rank passes a considerable part of his time in cooking, but the ceremonies which this operation involves being very troublesome, many of the natives kindle a fire only once a day, generally in the evening, when they make their principal meal. In the morning and at noon they eat some food that does not require cooking, such as parched rice, or rice parboiled and afterwards beaten flat and dried. Those who can afford the expense, mix it with molasses, and form cakes or balls, and some mix it with milk, sour or curdled, or with tamarinds. The poor either eat it without any addition, or moisten it with a little water, and if such luxuries be attainable, season it with a little salt or some acid fruit. The preparations of milk are various, consisting of boiled butter (ghee); curdled sour milk; butter milk; inspissated milk; and curds. The natives use only boiled milk; the taste as it comes from the cow being considered unpalatable. Neither is the butter ever used without having being boiled, which process converts it into an oil that keeps much better than butter. Even in the climate of Bengal it undergoes little change for a month, and may be used after having been kept a year. The Bengal sweetmeats please neither the eye nor palate of Europeans, but the rich natives use large quantities, mostly fried in oil or butter.

Notwithstanding the low price of the necessaries of life, the common labourers find it extremely difficult to subsist on their scanty earnings, which in some places are not more than from a penny to two-pence a day, and are obliged to have recourse to many expedients, and also possess some advantages. Their fuel, herbs, and fruit, cost them nothing, being picked up casually; they require almost no clothes, and lie on the ground. The wife spins sufficient cotton to

make a web for herself and husband, the children go naked. The man, if a Mahommedan, rears a few fowls; if a Hindoo, he has usually some fruit trees, the produce of which he sells and purchases a little salt, oil, and other luxuries. Vast multitudes, however, from day to day, never procure any food, except boiled rice, green pepper pods, and boiled herbs; the stage above which is a little oil with their herbs. Poverty here excites no pity beyond a man's own caste. He belongs to a degraded class, is accursed by the gods, and is suffering for the sins of a former birth.

Owing to the number of Mahommedans and native Portugueze, fowls are abundant; but by the Hindoos of Bengal, they are reckoned impure. Every Mussulmaun family has some, which are sheltered in their huts, and sometimes receive a little grain; and there are few families so poor but they can occasionally offer a fowl to a saint, and eat the meat. Both Hindoos and Mahommedans keep ducks, and pigeons are plenty and cheap. Geese are chiefly kept as pets, and can seldom be procured by purchase. In many parts, turkies have not even been heard of, but wherever the native Portugueze have settled in considerable numbers, they abound, as in the Chittagong district.

Dogs, the humble ally of man, are little honoured in India, and no employment can be more disgraceful, than the taking care of this faithful brute; yet the breed in Bengal is numerous, and every village swarms with half starved curs which eat every sort of carcass and filth, and are not reckoned the property of any body. The natives seldom enter into any familiarity with them, nor are the children ever seen either caressing or tormenting them as in Europe. They are, in fact, merely tolerated; one or two, according to the wealth of a family, being permitted to eat the scraps, in return for which they sleep in the yard, and bark when a stranger approaches. The bitches are few in number, and generally more starved than the dogs, being weaker, and the natives observing a strict neutrality in their quarrels. These creatures are so prolific, that the number of dogs always exceeds that of the houses which give them shelter; and a large proportion have no resource but to roam about in misery like jackalls. But under all their hardships they retain the affectionate nature of their kind: the least feeding attaches them, and when the pangs of hunger are deadened, the slightest notice delights them, and they soon discover who is the chief person in a party, although he neither caresses nor feeds them. Cats are not numerous, and are like dogs just tolerated, and live in a half-domestic, half-wild state.

In many parts of Bengal, an absurd custom prevails, which frequently occasions much damage to the farmers; when a rich man dies and the ceremony in commemoration of ancestors has been performed, a young bull is consecrated with much solemnity to Siva, and married to four young cows; after which he

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is marked and turned loose. He may then go where he pleases, and it is not lawful to beat him, even if he be eating a valuable crop, or enters a shop and there devours the grain exposed to sale. The sufferers shout and make a noise to drive him away, but he soon despises this vociferation, and eats heartily until he is satisfied. These consecrated bulls become, in consequence of these free quarters, very fat, and are fine animals to look at, but very destructive. The wives are given away to Brahmins, and he seldom sees them again. The two last Rajahs of Dinagepoor, among other expedients which they devised with great success to ruin themselves, consecrated in this manner about 2000 cows; and as no person presumed to molest the sacred animals, the vicinity soon became desolate, and the magistrate was at last compelled to sell them all except 100, which were left with the widow to soothe her misfortunes. It is said, that before the Mahommedan conquest, the Hindoos never castrated the bull; but this appears improbable, and certainly little cultivation could be performed by perfect males.

The Bengalese are in general, a lively, handsome, race of men; there is also a softness in their features, corresponding to the general mildness, or perhaps, pusillanimity of their character; and were it not for the uncharitable operation of caste, they would, comparatively, be a friendly and inoffensive race. They have a thorough contempt for all other nations and castes (which seems reciprocal), whom they consider impure and degraded, originally Hindoos, but, in consequence of their sins and enormities, fallen from that high estate. The contrast between the rough bluntness of an European, and the smooth easy polish of a Bengalese, is very striking; the latter are naturally polite, and frequently exhibit a great suppleness of manner that surprizes a stranger. This observation, however, is only applicable so far as regards their conduct towards their superiors, for to inferiors, of whatever nation, they are usually insolent and contumelious. Their youths are lively, inquisitive, and of quick perception; and the common people, noisy and loquacious. These are of a dark brown colour, middling stature, thin, but well made; of an oval countenance, many with aquiline noses, and all with black eyes and hair.

The dress of the Hindoo men of rank has become nearly the same with that of the Mahommedans. At home, however, the Hindoo men, and on all occasions their women, retain almost entirely their native dress, which is happily suited to the climate, and requires neither buttons, strings, nor pins. This consists of various pieces of cloth wrapped round them, without having been sown together in any form, and only kept fixed by having the ends thrust under the folds. The needle appears to have been totally unknown to the genuine Hindoos, nor is there any distinct Hindoo word for sewing, except that used for passing

the shuttle in the act of weaving. The head is kept bare, both out of doors and at home; nor do they ever wear stockings. The rich men wear shoes down at the heel covered with gold and silver thread, and turning up at the toe like the curl of a pig's tail. The poorer Bengalese have only a shred of cloth round their loins to cover their nakedness. The females are remarkably fond of trinkets, which they fix in their nose, hair, on their forehead, ears, arms, wrists and ancles. Rings, of silver and gold, are universally worn; and few are so very poor as not to have a silver ring of some sort. The married Hindoo women use red lead as an ornament, but instead of painting their cheeks like the European ladies, they rub it on their foreheads. They also tinge their fingers and nails, and paint round the soles of their feet with red. The destructive female deities consume a great deal, as an offering of this pigment is supposed to be particularly agreeable to them. The Bengal tooth powder is usually composed of myrobalans, of two other fruits called majaphol and tai, of green vitriol, and of iron filings. It is reckoned by the natives a strengthener of the gums; and when applied in a certain manner with betel and some other substances, it renders the teeth extremely black, which is considered ornamental. The making of female ornaments gives employment to a great many artists, among whom are the persons who make rings of shell lac, which the Mahommedan women wear round their arms. They are of various colours, and are, in fact, a hard sealing-wax. The Hindoo females use bracelets of shells, which are cut with a semi-circular saw, and polished by rubbing on a sand stone. In compliment, a woman is commended when she is described as walking like a duck or an elephant. The teeth are beautiful when like the seeds of the pomegranate (black and red); the nose, when like the beak of a parrot; the hands and feet like the water lily; the hair when black as a cloud; the chin when resembling a mangoe; and the lips when like the fruit of talacucha.

But many and severe are the hardships imposed on Hindoo widows of pure caste. They are stript of numerous ornaments which they enjoyed while children and wives, and are not allowed to wear a red border on their dress. They are compelled to sleep on the ground exposed to insects and vermin, and to act as menial servants to the vain beauties who are decked out in the ornaments of which they have been deprived. Women of a high spirit often prefer the funeral pile, while many others submit with patience, especially in the families of landholders, where they have young sons incapable of managing their affairs; others, to escape these harsh regulations, seek refuge in a brothel. A pure Hindoo, of Bengal, however, is on no account permitted to keep a concubine; and it is chiefly in the north eastern parts, where the female manners are relaxed, that Hindoo families keep many female servants. In the south, where the manners

of Bengal are more strictly observed, most of the women servants are old, and are chiefly employed in Mahommedan families.

To the ear of a European, the native music sounds harsh and disagreeable, and to professed musicians, is altogether insufferable. The performers, however, are numerous, and the variety of noises they are able to produce, considerable. The highest description of musicians consist of bands of instrumental music, which accompany the voices of girls who sing and dance. . The latter is quite as bad as their music; the motions being slow, lifeless, and without grace. The greatest art is to jingle time with some chains, or large hollow rings (goongooroos), which are tied round their ancles. During the Mussulmaun mohurrim, some persons are employed to sing the praises of Fatima, the daughter of Mahommed; and of her unfortunate sons Hassan and Hossein. But it is principally at marriages, during religious processions, and such great solemnities, that the full din of music is heard, proceeding from eight different sorts of drums, gongs, kinds of hautboys, the horns of buffaloes, and brass trumpets, performed by the lowest dregs of the people. From these formidable implements of sound, each man extorts as much noise as he can, paying little or no attention to what his comrades are about. Sometimes men amuse themselves singing hymns or love songs, accompanied by small drums; but it is considered as very disgraceful for a modest woman to sing or play on any musical instrument. While rowing, the native boatmen endeavour to lessen their fatigue, by singing the adventures of Krishna and Radha; and it is among them that the only real melody is to be found, some of them greatly resembling the common Scotch and Irish airs.

In Bengal the common washermen are almost all Hindoos of a very low tribe, and have no capital. The common people occasionally go to a tank, or to the river side, and wash the clothes in which they are dressed, for they seldom have any changes. Almost all the taylors are Mahommedans, the needle having apparently been totally unknown to the Hindoos. A great proportion of the barbers are Hindoos, are a pure tribe, and shave without soap. In the country they attend at all markets, when they shave the beards, and cut the nails of those who employ them. Farmers and labourers shave only once a month, and generally pay the barber in grain. Rich men often keep barbers who shave them, pick their ears, cut their nails, crack their joints, and knead their bodies, to which operation the natives are much attached. Ten days after a woman has been delivered, the nails both of her and her child are cut by the barber. No native woman, except a prostitute, will allow her hair to be cut, such care of her person being deemed incompatible with modesty.

The persons who prepare tobacco for smoking are an important set of artists, but do not require a large capital. In composing their commodity they take

from 20 to 30 pounds of tobacco, dry it in the sun, and beat it in a mortar, after which they dry it again, and beat it up with three-fourths of its weight of treacle, when it forms a sort of cake or ball, which will keep ten or twelve days, and is sold in retail. Rich people and Europeans use many other ingredients. The Bengal paper is mostly fabricated by Mahommedans, who probably introduced the art, as before their arrival the natives in their writings appear to have used only the leaves, or bark of trees. The material for making the paper is the paut in its rough state, which after being for some days macerated in lime and water, is beaten until it becomes a pulp, which is afterwards washed and soaked, and then wrought into paper. The workman's mould is a frame of bamboos split fine. After the paper is allowed to dry, it is taken sheet by sheet and immersed in a decoction of rice starch, and having been dried is placed on a smooth plank, and rubbed with a smooth stone, which is to serve instead of hot-pressing. The metallic fabrications are generally clumsy and conducted with characteristic apathy. A Bengal blacksmith cannot work by himself; he must have a man to blow the bellows, and he usually has an assistant to work with a large hammer. The bellows are placed vertically, and on the back board of each is a button, which the workman takes between his toes, and lying quietly down on his back, moves the boards backwards and forwards with his feet. Of the medical profession there are in Bengal three sects of native physicians; the Yunani (Ionians), among the Mahommedans; the Sakadwipi Brahmins in Bahar; and the Vaidhyas in Bengal.

Domestic slavery is very generally prevalent in Bengal, among both Hindoos and Mahommedans. More trusty than hired servants, slaves are almost exclusively employed in the interior of the house, for attendance on the members of the family, and in all the most confidential services. Every opulent person, every one raised above the condition of the simplest mediocrity, is provided with household slaves, and from this class chiefly are taken the concubines of Mahommedans and Hindoos; in regard to whom it is to be remembered, that concubinage is not among people of these religions an immoral state, but a relation, which both law and custom recognize without reprehension; and its prevalence is only liable to the same objections as polygamy, with which it has a near and almost necessary connection. In the lower provinces under the Bengal Presidency, the employment of slaves in the labours of husbandry is almost unknown. In the upper provinces, beginning from Western Bahar and Benares, the petty landlords, who are themselves cultivators, are aided in their husbandry by slaves, whom they very commonly employ as herds and ploughmen. Landlords of a higher class have, in a few instances, the pretensions of masters, over a part of their tenants long settled on their estates, and

reputed to be descended from persons who were the acknowledged slaves of their ancestors. Their claims to the services of these hereditary serfs, who are scarcely to be distinguished from the rest of the peasantry, are nearly obsolete, and scarcely attended with any practical consequences; but those employed in husbandry by the inferior classes of landholders are decidedly slaves. The employment of slaves in handicraft work is more rare, but not entirely unknown.

It would be difficult to form a computation of the number of slaves throughout the country, or of the proportion borne to the free population, and any steps towards the preparation of an accurate estimate would involve inquiries, which cannot fail of exciting great alarm and agitation. In a general point of view it may be stated, that slaves are neither so few as to be of no consideration, or so numerous as to constitute a notable proportion of the population. The number, which is certainly not relatively great, has been kept up, 1st, by propagation among themselves, or with free persons; 2dly, by the sale of free children into slavery within the country; 3dly, by importation from abroad by sea or by land.

Neither the disposition of the people, nor their accustomed mode of treating their slaves, tends to impede the rearing of children by any discouragement of marriages; the instances of concubines and prostitutes of course excepted. In other cases a sense of propriety leads very usually to provide a match for the household slave, whose offspring, following the condition of the mother, is considered to be attached to the family by a stronger tie than the simple relation of a slave to his master. In fact, the slave is usually rather a favourite and confidential servant, than an abject drudge, and held superior to the hireling, both in his master's estimation and in his own. Neither is it necessary to suppose the number of children born and reared to be small, because foreign importation and home sale take place. Opulent persons, in whose families more slaves happen to be born, than they are desirous of retaining, do not sell but emancipate; and persons of reduced circumstances are not willing to dispose of their slaves by sale, which is a discreditable act, but give them their freedom, although the price be of importance to them in their actual state of indigence. The manumission of slaves being deemed an act of piety and expiation, it frequently takes place from religious motives; and slaves are expressly redeemed by purchase. By these processes the number of slaves continually diminishing, a demand constantly exists for the purchase of them.

This is chiefly supplied by the sale of children by their parents in seasons of famine, or in circumstances of peculiar calamity; but the prices in both cases are low, and no brisk traffic in slaves has ever been experienced. During a

dearth or famine, parents have been known to sell their children for prices so very inconsiderable, and so little more than nominal, that they may in frequent instances have credit for a better motive than that of momentarily relieving their own necessities; namely, the saving of their children's lives, by interesting in their preservation persons able to provide that nourishment, of which they are themselves destitute. The same feeling is often the motive for selling children under circumstances of peculiar distress; nor is there any reason to believe that they are ever sold through mere avarice, or want of natural affection; indeed, the known character of the people in all their domestic relations must exempt them from the suspicion of such conduct. The pressure of want alone, therefore, stimulates the sale; and so long as no established fund, or regulated system for the relief of the indigent exists, it does not seem practicable to prevent the disposal of children by their parents, which is permitted by their own laws.

There are two classes of purchasers, however, by whom larger prices are given. The one comprehends various religious orders, the members of which purchase children to initiate them into their own class; but being restricted in their selection to the higher castes of Hindoos, they do not readily find persons willing to part with their children. They are in consequence obliged to bribe the cupidity of parents, by a large pecuniary consideration, which their opulence, derived from the union of the commercial with the religious profession, enables them to hold out. The greatness of the reward has been supposed, in some instances, to lead to kidnapping, but this cannot occur frequently, as the purchaser requires always to have the parentage of the child clearly established. The other description of purchasers alluded to consists of the owners of sets of dancing women, who buy female children, and instruct them for public exhibition, and as they generally become courtezans, prohibitory laws might be enacted. Yet it would perhaps be going too far, to presume in all cases the intention of prostitution, and to interdict all instruction in the art of dancing, which forms a regular part of their religious festivals and celebrations.

The remaining source for the supply of slaves, until prohibited by law, was the importation by sea and land. By the first mentioned channel a few African slaves, never amounting to 100, were brought to Calcutta in the Arab ships. The importation by land was principally from the Nepaulese dominions, where the oppressive administration of the Gorkhas drove the wretched inhabitants to the sad resource of selling their children, or themselves, into slavery, when all other expedients of meeting the insatiable exactions of their rulers were exhausted. At present the existence of slavery, as sanctioned by the Hindoo and Mahommedan law, is tolerated and maintained by the courts of judicature

under the British government in India; nor does it appear that any legislative enactment on the subject is called for. Although the native laws have not provided against the barbarity of an inhuman master, the British local regulations have, by expressly annulling the exemption from kisas, or retaliation for murder, in 1798, since which period slaves have not been considered out of the protection of the law, either in the case of murder or of barbarous usage.

Among the native population of the eastern districts of Bengal, the Mahommedans are almost equally numerous with the Hindoos, and in some particular parts, such as Ghoraghaut, a majority of the cultivators appear to have embraced the Mahommedan faith. In the central districts the Mahommedans do not constitute a fourth part of the population, and to the westward the disproportion is still greater. As an average of the whole the Mahommedans may be computed at one seventh of the population. Of the four great castes, the aggregate of the Brahmin, Khetri, and Vaisya, may amount at the most to only a fifth part of the whole population; but except families which have evidently migrated into Bengal, there are none in that country who pretend to be Khetries, or Vaisyas, so that the original Bengalese may be considered as divided into Brahmins and Sudras. With respect to religious doctrines, it may be asserted for general purposes that there are five sects in Bengal, viz.

1st, Saiva, who consider Siva, or Mahadeva as the principal god, but always worship this deity in conjunction with a female power.

2d. The Sacti, who worship chiefly the female portion of the deity.

3d. The Saur, who worship the sun.

4th. The Ganpatya, who worship Ganesa.

5th. The Vaishnavas, who worship Vishnu, which sect has branched into two; the one worshippers of Rama, the other of Krishna.

The members of these sects, although they consider one particular deity as the principal object of worship, and as the chief of gods, do not fancy that the other gods have no existence; on the contrary, they occasionally address prayers to each of them; all may therefore be considered polytheists, and the whole are idolaters. Three of the sects abovementioned comprehend but a very small number of individuals; the most numerous are those who worship the Sacti among the Brahmins, and those among the Sudras who worship Vishnu, under the form of Krishna. These last have a strong propensity to worship any god that comes in their way, especially the Sacti; nor is it surprising that the devotees of Vishnu should occasionally wander, when even the Mahommedans forget their prophet, and in their distress, if they can procure no relief by prayers to their saint, try what can be done by a sacrifice to Cali. The Sacti are all destructive female spirits, and considered by the Brahmins as

merely different personifications of the wife of Siva; but by the ignorant they are worshipped as the inflictors of various evils, which they are desirous to escape, and are called Gram Devatas, or village gods.

Among the Hindoos of Bengal well informed persons of a higher rank believe in a future existence, and that it is a state of rewards and punishments; but most of the lower tribes, and the more ignorant Brahmins, do not generally believe this opinion, although they commonly have heard of the doctrine. Their worship consequently seems merely performed for temporary purposes, and with a view to the rewards and punishments of this life. The lower classes have very little respect for oaths, and the higher believe that it is sinful to take any oath. The superiority of the Brahmins is in Bengal, as throughout the whole of Hindostan, undisputed. The peculiar tribes of this caste are said to have sprung from five families of Brahmins from Kanoje, introduced by Adisur Raja, a physician, the founder of a dynasty which governed the province for some time before the Mahommedan conquest. The first in rank are the Coolin Brahmins, who have great privileges, and are allowed to marry many wives. The difference of religious tenets produces much less controversy among the Brahmins of Bengal, than among those of the south, and except to their spiritual instructor, they do not divulge to what sect they adhere; whereas in the Carnatics, each party glories in its sect, and takes every opportunity of extolling it above every other. Certain religious offices in some measure deprive a Brahmin of caste. Those who degrade themselves by acting as spiritual instructors to any of the impure tribes are called Vornos, and from such no tradesman of the nine pure estates will condescend to accept water. Brahmins of the five Bengal tribes, unlike those of the south of India, not only act as priests in temples where bloody sacrifices are performed, but actually make the offering, and eat the meat.

In this province the highest Sudras are the Vaidyas, or medical tribe. The Kayasthas (pronounced Kaists, hence the word caste) follow next, and were once of more importance, when the Brahmins interfered less with the revenue and commerce of the country. Next to the Kayasthas are nine tribes of tradesmen, who although greatly inferior to these scribes, are considered pure Sudras, as a Brahmin will condescend to drink water offered by them, nor is he degraded by giving them instruction. The nine trades are—

Druggists,	Cultivators of betel leaf,	Blacksmiths,
Workers in shell,	Weavers,	Potters,
Coppersmiths,	Makers of garlands,	Barbers.

By some strange caprice, not only the bankers, but also the goldsmiths are

excluded from the pure castes of artificers, while barbers, pot makers, coppersmiths, and blacksmiths, obtain that much envied dignity.

When Raja Bollal Sen arranged the castes in Bengal, it does not appear that he promulgated any code of written regulations, at least no book of this description is now extant. Each caste, however, has persons called ghotoks, who keep registers of marriages and can ascertain genealogies. In Bengal, commerce and agriculture are universally permitted to all classes, and under the general designation of servants to the other three tribes, the Sudras are allowed to prosecute any manufacture. In this tribe are included not only the true Sudras, but also several castes, whose origin is ascribed to the promiscuous intercourse of the four classes. In practice little attention is paid to the limitation of castes, daily observation shewing Brahmins exercising the martial profession of a Khetri, and even the menial one of a Sudra. It may however be received as a general maxim, that the occupation appointed for each tribe is entitled merely to a preference, every profession, with a few exceptions, being open to every description of persons.

In this province, and throughout Hindostan generally, every caste in order to preserve purity, form themselves into clubs or lodges, consisting of individuals of that caste residing within a small distance, and in Bengal termed collectively dol, which govern themselves by particular rules and customs, or by laws. At the head of each dol is a chief, whose office among the higher ranks is hereditary, and whose duty it is to punish all transgressions either by excommunication or by fine; but his decisions must be guided by the sentiments of the principal persons composing the society. In large towns there are commonly two or three chiefs of dols, whose adherents in general quarrel and annoy each other as much as circumstances permit. Each caste, when it is numerous in any place, has besides one or more distinct dols, or societies for enforcing the observation of its rules. Each kind of Brahmin, and each subdivision of Sudras, has its own, and most of these are parcelled out into diverging branches, which dispute about purity and precedence. In the various tribes the chiefs of castes are called by different names, but the most common is Paramaniks. The crimes usually punished by these combinations are the eating of forbidden things, or the eating in company with forbidden persons, and cohabiting with those who are impure or forbidden.

Many tribes of Hindoos, and even some Brahmins, have no objections to the use of animal food, and at their entertainments it is generally introduced. By some, animal food is daily eaten; and the institutes of their religion require that flesh should be tasted even by Brahmins at solemn sacrifices, forbidding the use of it unless joined with the performance of such a sacrifice. Dr. Leyden

was inclined to think, that anthropophagy was practised by a class of mendicants named Agora Punth, in Bengal and other parts of India. In the terrible famine of 1770, many Hindoos unable to withstand the cravings of hunger ate food from impure hands and lost caste. These and their descendants now form a tribe, called Saryuriya, because in every revolution of sixty years, a famine or some other great calamity is supposed to occur in the year Saryuriya, as happened in the instance abovementioned.

To give an account of the ceremonies of each, or of any one of the Bengal castes, would be impracticable within any reasonable limits, and if practicable would only prove in how preposterously frivolous manner time may be wasted. In the observance of these ceremonies, however, every Hindoo seems to place his chief gratification, and glories in an established reputation for their strict performance. Except the bodies of children, the dead of all castes are burned, but the funeral pile being expensive, many of the poor cannot afford to be reduced to ashes. As a substitute a torch or wisp of straw is put into the mouth of the corpse, and afterwards, if near a large river, it is thrown into the water, or if at a distance, buried; but the first is always preferred and fills the Bengal rivers with disgusting objects. The Bengalese Hindoos have generally a great terror of the dead, and will seldom venture to inhabit a hut or house where a person has died. This seems connected with their custom of exposing their sick to perish on the banks of rivers, which tends to aggravate the last pangs of nature, and sometimes not only accelerates death, but exhausts that strength which might possibly have enabled nature to overcome the disease. The practice also furnishes an opportunity of practising other horrid crimes, and it has been probably to guard against the possibility of such events, that the Hindoo legislators have imposed such severe hardships on widows. By a recent regulation of the government, before any sutti (the burning of a widow) can take place, notice must be given to the police; they are also prohibited from lying down within the pile, although after it is set on fire, they are at liberty to enter.

In the moral scale the Bengalese Hindoos must be allowed to rank very low, being destitute in a wonderful degree of the qualities which contribute to dignify the human race, and in Europe form the standard by which men are estimated. In Europe a reputation for truth, honesty and good faith, is always sought after, and those who have them not are still solicitous to maintain appearance of them, while those known to be devoid of them sink into contempt. It is not so in Bengal, where these qualities are so generally unknown, that men do not found their pretensions on them, and are quite indifferent to the reputation of possessing them, nor does their absence, however plain and notorious, lower any individual in the opinion of his countrymen. With the natives want of veracity is so habi-

tual, that if any person has truth to defend, he will without the slightest necessity resort to falsehood for its support. In matters of interest, lying seems so natural, that it gives no provocation, being considered merely as a common mode of proceeding, and the practices of cheating, pilfering, tricking and imposing, are so general, that the natives regard them as unavoidable evils from which they must protect themselves the best way they can. In Bengal a man of real veracity and integrity is a wonderful phenomenon; one, conscientious in his whole conduct, may safely be pronounced an unknown character. Distrust is consequently awake in all transactions; bargains and agreements are made with mutual apprehensions of a breach of faith; conditions and securities are multiplied, and failure in their performance excites little or no surprise. Frauds, deceptions, evasions, and procrastinations, incessantly occur in every line and profession, and forgeries are resorted to without scruple. Menial servants who have been long in place, and have evinced a real attachment to their masters, are nevertheless in the daily habitual practice of pilfering from them.

The administration of justice wherever it has been committed to the natives, whether Hindoos or Mahommedans, has almost invariably become a traffic in venality, the best cause being obliged to pay for success, and the worst having an opportunity of purchasing it. Perjury is so frequent, that it is no uncommon event, to hear two sets of witnesses swearing directly contrary to each other, and to find on minute investigation, that neither were at all acquainted with the matter in question. Being destitute of courage, but formed for business, artful, frugal, and persevering, they seek the accomplishment of their ends by low cunning, intrigue, servility and obsequiousness. To superiors they are full of reverence, and wonderfully patient of slights, neglects and injuries, from a quarter where there is any thing either to hope or fear. In general the natives have not sufficient resolution to revenge their quarrels by open combat; but robberies, thefts, burglaries, river piracies, and all sorts of depredations where darkness, secrecy, or surprise can give advantage, have always been exceedingly common. Many of these robbers, on a principle of fatalism, believe themselves destined to the commission of the crimes which they perpetrate, and are consequently prepared to resign life, when the appointed period shall come, with astonishing indifference; considering the law that condemns them, not as the instrument of justice, but as the power of the stronger party. Neither do the Hindoos appear to have derived any benefit from the government and intermixture of the Mahommedans, who appear to have superadded some of their own evil qualities to those already in existence; but the lower classes of both sects are now so much assimilated, that a description of their vices may be considered as applying to them collectively.

Although some of their customs have an apparent approximation, benevolence,

in a general sense, cannot be said to form any part of the Bengalese character. Certain modes of distributing victuals to mendicants are prescribed by the Hindoo religion; and also to certain castes, an abstinence from animal food; but this ostentation of charity is frequently nothing more than the pampering of idle and sturdy priests; and although a Hindoo would shrink with horror from the idea of embruing his hands in the blood of a cow, yet he does not hesitate to drive one in his cart, where it is so beaten, galled, and excoriated, that death might be inflicted as a mercy to the miserable and sacred animal. Among the lower classes where the passions have a free range, discord, hatred, abuse, injuries and litigation, the effect of deliberate malice, prevail to a surprising degree; and we are informed from the highest authority, that to lie, steal, ravish, or murder, are not deemed crimes of sufficient atrocity to entitle the perpetrator to expulsion from society. After stating these heavy charges against the private character of the Bengalese, we must add, that as subjects they are quiet, patient, industrious, and governed with a facility almost incredible; and that one European may sleep secure, amidst a million of Bengalese, without a lock on his door, or a weapon of offence in his vicinity. We mention this as a notorious matter of fact, experienced by every European of character, who has ever resided among the genuine Bengalese, remote from the contamination of Calcutta, and of European society.—*(F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, C. Grant, Ward, Lord Minto, Harrington, Lord Teignmouth, &c. &c. &c.)*

CHAPTER VIII.

HISTORY OF BENGAL.

Of the existence of Bengal as a separate kingdom, with the limits assigned to it at present, there is no other evidence than its distinct language and peculiar written character. At the time of the war of the Mahabharat, it formed part of the empire of Magadha, or Bahar, from which, however, it was dismembered before the Mahommedan invasion. Traditions, still current in Bengal, make Bollal Sen, the immediate successor of Adisur, a person of the Vaidya, or medical tribe, who procured the government of Bengal, but still subject to the monarchs of the west. He is said to have resided partly at Gour, but chiefly at Bikrampoor, eight miles south east from Dacca.

Adisur's wife had a son named Bollal Sen, begotten by the river Brahmaputra, under the form of a Brahmin. This offspring of the floods succeeded Adisur, and regulated the different castes, as they now exist in Bengal; and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that the medical tribe, being that of the prince who arranged the precedence, was placed next in dignity to the Brahmins. During the Adisur dynasty, the following are said to have been the ancient geographical divisions of Bengal:

Gour was the capital, forming the centre division, and surrounded by five great provinces.

1st, Barendra, bounded by the Mahananda on the west; by the Padma, or great branch of the Ganges, on the south; by the Kortoya on the east; and by adjacent governments on the north.

2d, Bangga, or the territory east from the Kortoya towards the Brahmaputra. The capital of Bengal, both before and afterwards, having long been near Dacca in the province of Bangga, the name is said to have been communicated to the whole.

3d, Bagri, or the Delta, called also Dwipa, or the island; bounded on the one side by the Padma, or great branch of the Ganges; on another by the sea; and on the third by the Hooghly river, or Bhagirathi.

4th, Rarhi, bounded by the Hooghly and Padma on the north and east, and by adjacent kingdoms on the west and south.

5th, Maithila, bounded by the Mahananda and Gour on the east; the Hooghly or Bhagirathi on the south; and by adjacent countries on the north and west.

The extent of these provinces towards the west, east, and north, it is now difficult to ascertain, but it certainly fell short of the present limits of the province, especially towards the east and north.

Bollal Sen was succeeded by Lakhyaman Sen, who, according to tradition, had a son named Madhava Sen, who had a son named Su Sen, usually considered by the Hindoos as the last of their kings; but according to the Ayeen Acberry, Lakhyaman Sen was the last. A. D. 1203, during the reign of Cuttub ud Deen on the Delhi throne, Mahommed Bukhtyar Khilijee was dispatched with an army by that sovereign to invade Bengal, and marched with such rapidity, that he surprised and captured the capital. On the approach of the Mahommedans, Raja Lakhyaman, who resided at Nuddea, made his escape in a boat, and fled to Juggernauth; where, according to Mahommedan authorities, he had the satisfaction of dying: but the traditions of the country state, that the Raja, being afraid of the destruction of Brahmins and sacred animals, which resistance might occasion, by a power holy men are supposed to possess, deserted his visible body. It is possible that the Raja only retired to his remote capital, Bikram-

poor, near Dacca, where there still resides a family possessing considerable estates, who pretend to be his descendants. We also find that Soonergong, in the vicinity of Bikrampoor, continued to be a place of refuge to the Gour malcontents, and was not finally subjugated until long after the overthrow of Raja Lakhyaman.

The kingdom, being in this dastardly manner abandoned by its sovereign, fell an easy prey to the Mahommedan general, who, having destroyed Nuddea, proceeded to Gour, where he established his capital and reared his mosques on the ruins of Hindoo temples. According to Mahommedan authorities, the conquest of this large province only occupied the short term of one year; but it would appear that after the capture of Gour, the Mahommedans were unable to extend their dominion over the whole Hindoo Kingdom of Bengal, not only towards the north and east, but even towards the west; nor did they obtain possession of the whole, constituted as it is at present, until a late period of the Mogul government.

From this period, Bengal was ruled by governors delegated by the Delhi sovereigns, until A. D. 1340, when Fakher ud Deen, having assassinated his master, revolted, and erected an independent monarchy in Bengal. After a short reign he was defeated, and put to death, and was succeeded by

A.D.

1343. Ilyas Khauje.

1358. Secunder Shah, killed in an engagement with his son,

1367. Gyas ud Deen. He eradicated the eyes of his brothers.

1373. Sultan Assulateen.

1383. Shums ud Deen, defeated and killed in battle by

1385. Raja Cansa, who ascended the throne, and was succeeded by his son,

1392. Chietmull Jellal ud Deen, who became a convert to the Mahommedan religion.

1409. Ahmed Khan, who sent an embassy to Shah Rokh, the son of Timour.

1426. Nassir Shah, succeeded by his son,

1457. Barbek Shah. This prince introduced mercenary guards, and forces composed of negro and Abyssinian slaves.

1474. Yuseph Shah, son of the last monarch, succeeded by his uncle,

1482. Futteh Shah, who was murdered by his eunuchs and Abyssinian slaves; on which event one of the eunuchs seized the crown, and assumed the name of

1491. Shah Zadeh; but after a reign of eight months he was assassinated, and the vacant throne taken possession of by

1491. Feroze Shah Hebshy, an Abyssinian slave, succeeded by his son,

1494. Mahmood Shah. This prince was murdered by his vizier, an Abyssinian, who ascended the throne under the name of

1495. Muziffer Shah, who proved a cruel tyrant and was slain in battle.

1499. Seid Hossein Shah. This prince expelled the Abyssinian troops, who retired to the Deccan and Gujerat, where they afterwards became conspicuous under the appellation of Siddhees. He afterwards invaded Camroop and Assam, but was repulsed with disgrace; upon the whole, however, he may be considered as the most powerful and tolerant of all the Bengal kings. He was succeeded by his son,

1520. Nusserit Shah, who was assassinated by his eunuchs, and his son Feroze Shah placed on the throne; but after a reign of three months he was also assassinated by his uncle,

1533. Mahmood Shah, subsequently expelled by Shere Shah, the Afghan, and with him, in 1538, ended the series of independent Mahommedan monarchs of Bengal. Some Portugueze ships had entered the Ganges so early as 1517, and in 1536, a squadron of nine ships was sent to the assistance of Mahmood Shah; but these succours arrived too late, and Bengal once more became an appendage to the throne of Delhi. The nature of the government of the independent kings is little known; but they appear to have enjoyed little security for their persons, and were in general furious bigots, greatly under the influence of Mussulmaun saints. Shere Shah and his successors, occupied Bengal until 1576, when it was conquered by the generals of the Emperor Acber; and, in 1580, formed in a Soubah, by Raja Tooder Mull.

The governors of Bengal under the Mogul dynasty, were

1576. Khan Jehan.
1579. Muzuffer Khan.
1580. Raja Tooder Mull.
1582. Khan Azim.
1584. Shahbaz Khan.
1589. Raja Maunsingh.
1606. Cuttub ud Deen Kokultash.
1607. Jehangire Cooly.
1608. Sheikh Islam Khan.
1613. Cossim Khan.
1618. Ibrahim Khan.
1622. Shah Jehan.
1625. Khanezad Khan.
1626. Mokurrem Khan.
1627. Fedai Khan.
1628. Cossim Khan Jobung.

1632. Azim Khan. During the government of this viceroy A.D. 1634, the English obtained permission to trade with their ships to Bengal, in consequence of a firmaun from the emperor Shah Jehan, but were restricted to the port of Pipley, where they established their factory.

1639. Sultan Shujah, the second son of Shah Jehan and brother of Aurengzebe. In 1642, Mr. Day, the agent who had so successfully established the settlement at Madras, proceeded on a voyage of experiment to Balasore; from whence he sent the first regular dispatch received by the Court of Directors from Bengal, recommending a factory at Balasore. In 1656, owing to the extortion and oppression which the Company experienced, their factories were withdrawn from Bengal.

1660. Meer Jumla.

1664. Shaista Khan. During the government of this viceroy, the French and Danes established themselves in Bengal. He expelled the Mughs of Aracan from the island of Sundeep, and his administration was, in other respects, able and prosperous, although described by the East India Company's agents of that period in the blackest colours.

1677. Fedai Khan.

1678. Sultan Mahommed Azim, the third son of Aurengzebe.

1680. Shaista Khan was re-appointed. This year Mr. Job Charnock was restored to the situation of Chief at Cossimbazar; and in 1681, Bengal was constituted a distinct agency from that of Fort St. George, or Madras. On the 20th of December, 1686, in consequence of a rupture with the Foujdar, or native military commander at Hooghly, the agent and council returned from Hooghly to Chattanuttee, or Calcutta, considering the latter as the safer station.

1689. Ibrahim Khan. In 1693, Mr. Job Charnock died, and was succeeded by Mr. Eyre; the seat of the Company's trade continuing at Chattanuttee. In 1693, Sir John Goldesborough was sent out as general superintendent and commissary of all the Company's possessions; but he died in Bengal in 1694, having confirmed Mr. Eyre as chief. In 1696, during the rebellion of Soobha Singh, the Dutch at Chinsura, the French at Chandernagore, and the English at Chattanuttee, requested permission to put their factories in a state of defence, and the viceroy having in general terms assented, they proceeded with great diligence to raise walls, bastions, and regular fortifications; the first suffered to foreigners by the Moguls within their dominions.

1697. Azim Ushaun, the grandson of Aurengzebe. In 1700, this prince, in consideration of a valuable present, permitted the agents of the East India Company to purchase three towns with the lands adjacent to their fortified factory;

viz. Chattanuttee, Govindpoor, and Calcutta. Mr. Eyre the chief, in consequence of instructions from home, having strengthened the works of the fort, it was denominated Fort William, in compliment to the king.

1704. Moorshed Cooly or Jaffier Khan. This nabob, in 1704, transferred the seat of government from Dacca to Moorshedabad, as being more central. The annual surplus revenue, during his administration, amounted to from 130 to 150 lacks of rupees, (£1,500,000), and was regularly transmitted to Delhi every February, accompanied by valuable presents. In 1706, the whole stock of the united East India Company had been removed to Calcutta, where the garrison consisted of 129 soldiers, of whom 66 were Europeans, exclusive of the gunner and his crew.

1725. Shujah ud Deen, son-in-law of the last governor. He was succeeded by his son,

1732. Serferaz Khan, who was dethroned, and killed in battle by

1740. Ali Verdi Khan. It does not appear that this nabob ever remitted any part of the revenue to Delhi. After the invasion of Hindostan, by Ahmed Shah Abdalli in 1746, and the death of the Emperor Mahommed Shah in the following year, the Mogul empire may be considered as wholly at an end, beyond the immediate vicinity of the city of Delhi.

1756. Seraje ud Dowlah, grandson to the late nabob, in April this year took undisputed possession of the three provinces, but it does not appear that he ever applied for, or received investiture from Delhi. On the 20th of June he captured Calcutta, and shut the prisoners, 146, in a room 20 feet square, where they all perished, except 23. On the 1st of January, 1757, Calcutta was retaken by Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive; on the 20th of June the nabob was defeated at Plassey, and the beginning of next July assassinated by order of the son of his successor, in the 20th year of his age, and 15th month of his reign. For the subsequent native princes of Bengal see the article Moorshedabad, as from this era may be dated the commencement of the British government in Bengal, although the dewanny, or authority to collect the revenue, was not obtained from the Delhi sovereign until 1765.

On taking a retrospect of the preceding century, it appears that from the establishment of Aurengzebe on the imperial throne, until the invasion of Nadir Shah, a period of eighty years, Bengal enjoyed profound peace without, and experienced only a few transient commotions internally. Under the government of the two last legitimate viceroys, Jaffier Khan and Shujah Khan, who ruled in succession nearly forty years, the state of the country was eminently flourishing, and the taxes but little felt, although the annual tribute remitted to Delhi was

usually a crore (10 millions) of rupees, the zemindars paying their land tax directly into the royal treasury, without the intervention of local collectors on the part of government. Even after the usurpation of Ali Verdi Khan, the zemindars were so opulent, as at one time to make him a donation of a crore of rupees, and at another, of fifty lacks towards defraying the extra expenses incurred in repelling the incursions of the Maharattas. Bengal had then few external political relations to maintain, and was never exposed to invasion at any time except from the west. The military establishment was consequently inconsiderable, and the general arrangement of the civil administration remarkable for economy, simplicity, and dispatch.

In the first period of British administration from 1757 to 1765, the provinces, with the exception of a few districts ceded to the Company, were continued under the government of the nabobs, to whom the administration of civil and criminal justice, the collection of the revenue, and the general powers of internal superintendance and regulation were delegated; the British reserving the direction of foreign policy, a controuling military power, a considerable tribute, and commercial advantages more considerable than had ever been conceded by the grants of emperors, or the prior usages of the country. In 1765, the dewanny was obtained by Lord Clive from the Emperor Shah Allum, under the condition of paying him 26 lacks of rupees annually, besides securing him a considerable tract of territory in Upper Hindostan; both of which he subsequently forfeited in 1771, by putting himself voluntarily into the power of the Maharattas. This important and valuable acquisition, observes a native historian, (Seid Gholaum Hossein,) was settled without hesitation or argument, as easily as the purchase of an ass or any other animal, without envoys or reference, either to the King of England, or to the Company.

Lord Clive returned to England in 1767, and was succeeded in the government by Mr. Verelst, and on his departure, 24th December, 1769, by Mr. Cartier. The crops of 1768 and 1769 proved scanty, and throughout the month of October, 1769, scarcely a drop of rain fell. The almost total failure of a third crop after the deficiency of two preceding ones, filled the miserable inhabitants with consternation and dismay. Some reliance was still placed on the crops of inferior grain, usually reaped between February and April, but the refreshing showers that commonly fall in what are called the dry months, between January and May, also failed, no rain descending until late in the latter month. The heat in consequence became insupportable, and every sort of herb was in a great degree dried to a powder. The result was universal despondence, and a too well founded apprehension of impending destruction, for the same calamity extended to Upper Hindostan, and no adjacent country was capable of furnishing an adequate supply.

The British administration and the native officers took the alarm at an early period, and adopted such precautionary measures as were within their power. In September 1769, the British and all their dependants were absolutely prohibited from trading in grain, and strict injunctions were, with doubtful policy, promulgated against the hoarding of grain, or dealing in it clandestinely, and as a measure of necessity 60,000 maunds were stored for the subsistence of the army. For these exertions the natives were principally indebted to Mr. Becher, of the civil service, who yet on his return to England found himself traduced as the author of the famine; and the purchase of a stock of rice for the army may have assisted to suggest the notion of a monopoly.

In the northern districts of Bengal the famine raged so early as November, 1769, and before the end of April had spread universal desolation. Rice rose gradually to four, and at length to ten times its usual cost, and even at these prices was to a vast multitude unattainable. Thousands crawled forth to the fields, and endeavoured by knawing the bark and chewing the bitter and astringent leaves of trees to prolong their miserable existence. In the country, the highways and fields were strewed with, and, in the towns, the streets and passages choked with the dying and the dead. Vast numbers flocked to Moorshedabad the capital, and supplies for that quarter were eagerly sought. Subscriptions were liberally made, and the Company, the nabob, the ministers, and European and native individuals largely contributed to the feeding of the poor. In Moorshedabad alone 7,000 were daily fed for several months, and the same practice was adopted in other places; but the good effect of these charitable endeavours was scarcely perceptible amidst the general mortality. In, and around the capital, it became necessary to keep a set of persons constantly occupied in removing the dead, who were placed on rafts by hundreds and floated down the river. At length the persons employed in this sad vocation fell victims to the noxious effluvia, and for a time dogs, vultures, and jackalls were the only scavengers. The air became offensive, and resounded with frantic cries of all ages and sexes in the agonies of death. In many places entire families, in others, whole villages became extinct, forbidden and abhorrent food was resorted to: the child fed on its dead parent; the mother on her child. A gloomy calm at length succeeded, and it was found that death had ended the miseries of so great a portion of the cultivators, that when the new crop reached maturity in many parts no proprietors remained to claim it. The number cut off during this period of horror has been variously estimated, but probably exceeded three millions, and although the desolation was of such uncontroulable magnitude, as to be evidently beyond the power of man either to prevent or inflict, yet in England it was ascribed to the very persons who endeavoured to alleviate its ravages, and even to others who were not in the country when it commenced. Nor did the total

impossibility of establishing a monopoly of grain, prevent a general belief in the western world, that the inhuman expedient had been resorted to by the servants of the East India Company. This calumny originated at the French settlement of Chandernagore, and from thence was transmitted to Paris, London and Europe generally, where it has been registered as truth in the page of history, has been made the subject of religious lamentation, has been immortalized in verse, and such is the power of perverse credulity, is still considered as an indelible stain on the British character, yet is wholly a phantom, and never had the slightest foundation in fact.

In 1772, Mr. Hastings was appointed Governor, and the next year by the interference of the British legislature a new constitution was given to the government of Bengal, and a majority of the members that were to administer it sent from England; the others being selected from the existing council. About the same period, 1772, English supervisors were sent into the districts to superintend the collection of the revenue, by which measure the British government stood forward as dewan, an office hitherto executed by native functionaries residing at Moorshedabad, the old seat of government and of the public exchequer. These native ministers, with the officers they employed in the provinces, were now laid aside; and the Company by the aid of their own servants, undertook the collection of the revenue. Along with their former controuling power, the governor and council joined the actual cognizance and executive management, which until then had remained vested in the native ministers. The ostensible seat of government, and of the exchequer, was removed to Calcutta; the provinces subdivided into collectorships, and a European civil servant stationed in each district. as a revenue collector.

This alteration transferred to the English the civil administration of justice, and every interposing medium between them and their Indian subjects being displaced, they came to transact business immediately with each other. The direct authority of the British now pervaded the interior, and the native or country government was abrogated both in form and fact, with the exception of the nabob's remaining function, that of chief criminal magistrate. The public functionaries then (1772) commenced their operations, and apparently with a very strong desire to alleviate the sufferings of the people, but, owing to the novelty of the task, committed many errors, both in finance and in the administration of justice, which rather tended to aggravate them. On this occasion sufficient attention was not paid to the essential distinction between the landholder having an interest in the soil, and the revenue servant, whose object was of course not the permanent welfare of the district under his management, but the temporary realization of the greatest possible revenue.

Mr. Hastings continued in the government until 1785, when he returned to Europe, and was succeeded by Sir John Macpherson. From the period of the revolution in 1757, the British in Bengal entered into no external offensive alliances, pursuing the system recommended by Lord Clive, which was, to avoid schemes of conquest and political intrigues, to improve the domestic condition of the provinces, and to procure respect by moderation and good faith. A deviation from this principle began in 1774, having for object the pecuniary advantage of the Company, and in 1778 a much wider deviation took place, by the carrying on of offensive war, with a view to the acquisition of territory in the west of India. By these measures an enormous debt was incurred, and the public resources greatly exhausted; to which evils succeeded the attack of Hyder Ali on the Carnatic, and a defensive war against him and his allies the French, the supporting of which fell wholly on Bengal. In this emergency the legislature again interfered, and regulations were enacted to correct the evils then prevalent in our Indian possessions, and also to invigorate the authority of the home administration of India affairs.

Lord Cornwallis reached Bengal in September, 1786, and during his government the last period took place of the British territorial administration of Bengal, the land revenue having been permanently fixed, and the same enjoyment of rights secured to all the inferior occupants of the soil. Very essential reforms were also made in the administration of justice. Up to this date the high station of supreme criminal judge remained vested in the nabob, represented by some Mahommedan delegate, who filled the inferior courts by sale with his own mean retainers, who, to reimburse themselves, exercised every extortion and oppression.

Under this destructive system the country groaned, and with its existence the British government was justly reproached. But reluctant to touch the last remaining prerogative of the nabob, it long temporized, until the evil became insupportable, when an arrangement took place, by the conditions of which the nabob appointed the Governor General in Council his delegate in the office of supreme criminal judge. Lord Cornwallis, and the members of that body, then took upon themselves the duties of the office, removed the chief criminal court from Moorshedabad to Calcutta, invested the collectors of districts with magisterial powers, and established courts of circuit for the principal divisions of the country. This great department was in fact wholly renovated, and filled with men of principle and ability, having adequate salaries, and subject to the strongest responsibilities. Even Europeans were placed under the cognizance of these provincial laws, and the authority of the collector subsequently restricted to the mere receipt and disbursement of the revenue, the distribution

of justice being transferred to a distinct class of magistrates. Henceforward the law became the arbiter in all matters of property, between the government and its subjects. For the administration of justice, the Hindoo and Mahommedan codes were in general made the standard for the respective sectaries of these religions; modified in some instances where they were barbarous and cruel, and improved in others having a relation to political economy; but continuing in force, so far as regards religious tenets, marriage, caste, inheritance, and some other points. During this important period the arrangements of the Company's army were new modelled, and its constitution greatly improved.

The government of Lord Cornwallis lasted until August, 1793, when he was succeeded by Lord Teignmouth, who prosecuted the beneficial measures of his predecessor, which were subsequently completed by the Marquis Wellesley. This nobleman reached India the 26th of April, 1798, and left Madras for England the 20th of August, 1805.

The Marquis Cornwallis arrived at Calcutta on his second mission in July, 1805, and died at Ghazipoor, near Benarès, the 5th of next October. He was succeeded by Sir George H. Barlow, who held the reins of government until the arrival of Lord Minto, July, 1807. Lord Minto returned to Europe in 1813, and was succeeded as Governor General by Lord Moira, now Marquis of Hastings, who reached India in October of that year, and who still continues to fill that important station.—*(Stewart, C. Grant, F. Buchanan, Bruce, Edinburgh Review, Gholaum Hossein, &c, &c.)*

THE SUNDERBUNDS.

(Sandari vana, a forest of Soondry Trees.)

We shall now proceed to give a separate description of the different geographical and statistical divisions of this province, beginning from the south, with the woody tract of country extending for 180 miles along the bay of Bengal, and generally distinguished by the name of the Sunderbunds.

This dreary region is composed of a labyrinth of rivers and creeks, all of which are salt, except those which communicate immediately with the principal arm of the Ganges; those numerous natural canals being so disposed, as to form a complete inland navigation. In tracing the sea coast of this Delta, there are eight openings found, each of which appears to be a principal mouth of the Ganges. As a strong presumptive proof of the wandering of that river, from one side of the Delta to the other, it may be observed, that there is no appearance of virgin earth between the Tiperah hills on the east and the district of Burdwan on the west; nor below Dacca and Bauleah on the north. In all the

sections of the numerous creeks and rivers of the Delta, nothing appears but sand and black mould in regular strata, until the clay is reached that forms the lower part of their beds; nor is there any substance so coarse as gravel, either in the Delta, or nearer the sea than 400 miles (by the course of the Ganges), at Oudanulla, where a rocky point, part of the base of the neighbouring hills, projects into the river.

The navigation through the Sunderbunds is effected chiefly by means of the tides; there being two distinct passages, the one named the southern, or Sunderbund passage, and the other the Balliaghaut passage. The first is the furthest about, and leads through the widest and deepest rivers, and opens into the Hooghly or Calcutta river, about 65 miles below the town. The Balliaghaut passage opens into a shallow lake on the east side of Calcutta. The navigation by these passages extends more than 200 miles through a thick forest, divided into numberless islands by a multitude of channels, so various in point of width, that a vessel has at one time her masts entangled among branches of trees from each side, and at another, sails on a broad expanded river, beautifully skirted with woods. The water is every where salt, and the whole forest abandoned to wild beasts, except here and there a solitary Fakeer. In passing through this jungle, the gloomy silence is sometimes relieved by the cooing of the dove, the call of the deer and peacock, the cackling of the hen, the crowing of the cock, the shrieking of parroquets, and the leaping and springing of monkies from branch to branch. On each side, alligators, of an enormous size, are seen asleep or basking in the sun; so entirely motionless, and so completely resembling a log of wood, that an inexperienced eye is invariably deceived, and takes them for what they resemble, until roused by a shot, when they scramble into the water with great activity. During the dry season, the lower shores of these rivers are visited by the salt makers and wood cutters, who then exercise their dreadful trade, at the constant hazard of their lives; for tigers of the most enormous size, not only appear on the margin, but frequently swim off to, and destroy the people in the boats that lie at anchor in the rivers. These passages are open throughout the year; and during the season when the stream of the Ganges is low, the whole trade of Bengal (the western districts excepted) passes either by channel creek, or by Balliaghaut; but chiefly by the former.

Many natives are annually carried off and eaten by tigers, while cutting wood, and making salt in the wilderness; yet several Mahommedan devotees, who pretend to possess charms against their malice, dwell in miserable huts by the river side, and are greatly revered by the passers by, who present offerings of food and cowries, to propitiate their good will. In the course of time, these saints are themselves almost invariably snatched off; but the longer they remain, the

more they are respected. Besides the huts in which these Fakeers reside, many skeletons of sheds are erected in different parts by the woodcutters, under which they raise a small mound of earth, like a grave, and repeat prayers before it, when about to commence their operations. But many of these woodcutters are Hindoos, who have assigned to various gods and goddesses particular portions of the Sunderbunds, in like manner as the Mahommedans have to their respective peers, or saints. These Hindoo labourers raise elevations of earth three or four inches high, and about three feet square; upon which they place balls of earth, and having painted them red, perform worship before them, offering rice, flowers, fruits, and the water of the Ganges. The head boatman then fasts and goes to sleep; during which last operation, a god or goddess informs him in a dream, where wood may be cut without dread of tigers.

It is not practicable to bring into culture the salt marshy lands, for the most part overflowed by the tide; nor is it desirable, while so much good land, in more healthy situations, remains imperfectly occupied. The existence of this forest also, on the margin of the bay, has always been considered important in a political view, as it presents a strong natural barrier against maritime invasion, along the whole southern frontier of Bengal. Great quantities of excellent salt are here manufactured, and esteemed of peculiar sanctity, as being extracted from the mud of the Ganges. The forests also furnish the capital with an inexhaustible supply of wood for fuel, boat building, and other purposes.

It has always been understood as a matter of notoriety, that this vast tract of waste land is without an owner, except a comparatively small portion on the skirts of the forest, belonging to the zemindars; all the remainder being unquestionably at the disposal of the government. In other parts of the provinces of Bengal and Bahar, very large portions of waste land, being the acknowledged property of the zemindars, and within the limits for which a permanent settlement has been concluded, are not liable to any assessment when cleared; having been given up to the zemindars by that arrangement, as the principal source of future improvement, by which their estates might be rendered capable of yielding a more adequate income after discharging the revenue to government. The chief exceptions to this statement are, 1st, the district of Chittagong, where the waste lands, or at least the chief part of them, were excepted from the Decennial settlement, by circumstances peculiar to that division of Bengal; and secondly, the newly acquired western provinces, and the district of Cuttack, where there are large tracts of land not the property of any individual, which may in time become productive to the revenue of the state. It is possible that future inquiry may discover some scattered portions of land not included in the permanent settlement; but there is no reason to suppose, that any large source

of present or future revenue of this nature, can be detected in the old provinces, by the utmost diligence of research, in any other instances besides the two above noticed, and the southern part of the Delta of the Ganges, called the Sunderbunds, or Soondry forests.

The well known fact, that this wilderness and labyrinth of rivers is the property of no landholder, but of the sovereign, was the basis on which a plan was formerly undertaken for bringing into cultivation the lands situated in the northern quarter, and recently for clearing the island of Sagor on the south western extremity. The very limited success that attended the first plan, (Mr. Henckell's in 1783,) the circumstances which led to its relinquishment, the partial success which has followed the subsequent unsanctioned prosecution of it by the local revenue officers, and the failure of the first measures for clearing Sagor island, require to be adverted to, that experienced sources of disappointment may be avoided, and requisite corrections introduced where practicable.

The failure of the first plan may be attributed to the difficulties and embarrassments arising from the claims of the zemindars to the lands granted to new settlers; the latter naturally desiring to have their grants as near as possible to the inhabited and cultivated tracts, which, of course, is the very situation to which the adjacent zemindars are likely to have claims of ownership, real, or pretended. The same result must again be expected, if these pretensions be not finally set at rest, and the boundaries of actual cultivation, occupancy, and assessment, anterior to the Decennial revenue settlement, be definitively marked off in the chart. In support of their claims to the remote portions, the zemindars may adduce the exactions occasionally levied from the woodcutters and wax gatherers, passing in their way to and from the Sunderbunds, as establishing their right to the soil of the forests to which the woodcutters and others repaired, and construing these exactions into the price of the trees, or a consideration for liberty to cut the trees, or to gather any other spontaneous production of these woods.

After the boundaries shall have been conclusively settled by commissioners appointed for the purpose, the remainder of the tract, constituting the Sunderbunds, may, without scruple or reserve, be declared the exclusive property of government, and let to tenants exempt from land-tax for seven years; for it is only by very great encouragement, that persons can be induced to undertake the laborious, unhealthy, and dangerous occupation of clearing the forest. It may be remarked also, that in this case, there is no sacrifice made by government; the lands being as they stand completely unproductive to the revenue, have been so from time immemorial, and are likely to continue so for ages, unless a spirit of enterprize and exertion be excited by the prospect of extraordinary advantages.

With a view to the prosecution of these improvements, a survey was made of

this tract in 1812 and 1813, by Captain Morrison of the Bengal Engineers, which fixed the northern boundary at the Jaboona creek, nearly on a line in an easterly direction with Hooghly, and exhibits the country from thence to Buddertullaw, on the southern bank of the Bedu, in a complete state of cultivation; and the result of this survey tended to impress a belief, that considerable tracts of land had been brought into cultivation, although concealed from government, especially in the Talook, originally granted to Mahommed Abid, and Mahommed Summee, where it would appear that 25,000 begahs had been rendered productive. To prevent a repetition of similar fraudulent abstractions of lands belonging to the state, a commissioner was appointed in 1814, with authority to examine the validity of all claims whatever, and also to assess the western portion of those lands. In 1790, the expense incurred by government in attempting to improve the Sunderbunds, amounted to 53,132 rupees, while the receipts were only 5,332 rupees, leaving a loss of 47,780 rupees.

Various derivations have been assigned to the name by which this tract is designated. By some it has been traced from Soondery, a species of tree; and also from the words soonder, beautiful, and bon, a forest; by others the name is asserted to be Chunderbund, because it is still comprehended in the ancient zemindary of the Chunderdeep. In 1784, the Sunderbunds, Cooch Bahar, and Rangamatty, were estimated by Major Rennell to contain 37,549 square miles, then conjectured to be all nearly waste, but subsequent investigation has considerably curtailed the extent of these supposed wildernesses.—*(Colebrooke, Rennell, Ward, Rocke, J. Grant, &c.)*

SAGOR ISLAND *(or Gangasagara).*

(The confluence of the Ganges with the Ocean.)

An island belonging to the province of Bengal, situated on the east side of the Hooghly river, about lat. 21° 40′ N. Authorities vary as to the limits within which Sagor island, properly so called, is comprehended, some considering it as including a very extensive tract, while others confine it to the south western extremity of the Sunderbunds, the whole of which is intersected by creeks dividing it into separate islets. According to a survey made by Lieut. Blane, in 1812, by a series of triangles, the island of Sagor extends from the northern entrance of Channel creek to the sea, comprizing the whole of the lands situated to the westward of Channel creek. An official map of the island, drawn in 1811, makes it 20 miles in length, by 5 in general breadth. This station is not found so destructive to the crews of ships, as those further up the Hooghly; and it is proved by experience, that the further down the river, the

less sickness prevails, Sagor being the healthiest anchorage on the coast. On account of the vast expansion of the river, ships have here the advantage of lying at a great distance from the shore, enjoy a refreshing circulation of sea air, and escape the deleterious exhalations from the mud banks and putrid vegetation at Culpee and Diamond harbour. Although the shores are bordered with trees and thick underwood, the interior in many considerable spots is said to be only covered with long grass, which in the dry season may be easily removed by fire.

Sagor island is a celebrated place of pilgrimage among the Hindoos, on account of its great sanctity, which arises from its situation at the junction of the holiest branch of the Ganges with the ocean. Many sacrifices are here annually performed, and are of two descriptions—of aged persons of both sexes, which are voluntary; and of children, which of course are involuntary; and the periods fixed for their celebration, are the full moon in November and January. The custom of sacrificing children seems confined to the people of the eastern districts, who, when apprehensive of not having progeny, promise, that, in the event of their having five children, they will devote the fifth in its infancy to the Ganges. In a particular instance which occurred, where the parents were apprehensive, that before a fifth child was born, they might be prevented by some new regulation of the British police, they threw their son, a boy 12 years of age, into the water, and he having reached the shore by swimming, was again seized by his own parents, and committed to destruction.

Although Sagor is held to be peculiarly sacred, from its being considered the termination of the Ganges, yet it is not the only place where rites of this nature are practised. The same immolations take place at Allahabad, at Baunsbariah in the district of Hooghly, and at Chogdah in that of Nuddea. It is reported, however, that the sacrifice at the last mentioned places is become a mere ceremony, and that although the children be thrown into the Ganges, in conformity to the vow of their parents, they are generally, if not uniformly, preserved.

It does not appear that these sacrifices are sanctioned by any tenet in the Hindoo Code; but according to Hindoo notions, the vow itself has the force of a religious dogma, and is considered equally binding as a written law. In November, 1801, thirty-nine persons were destroyed; but in January next, the Calcutta police sent a party of officers to prevent the repetition of such barbarities, which was effected without disturbance or opposition. With respect to the self-devotion of the aged and infirm, the practice prevails so universally, and is considered by the Hindoos, under certain circumstances, so instrumental to their happiness in a future state of existence, that no regulation could

eradicate a custom of such antiquity, and sanctioned by express tenets in their sacred books. In 1801, only a few Gossains (Hindoo devotees) resided on this dreary island, who levied contributions from the pilgrims and shop keepers resorting to Sagor, deriving their title thereto from a sage named Capila, who is supposed to have lived 2,000 years before Christ. These pilgrims bathe where the Ganges and the ocean unite, perform obsequies for their deceased ancestors, and visit the temple of Capila, who is here worshipped as a god. When Mr. Ward visited the temple, he found in the court a mendicant devotee, of the description who constantly keep an arm raised above their heads; and also another religious mendicant, by whom he was informed, that at the close of the prior festival, five or six mendicants had taken up their abode within the same precincts, but that some of them had been carried off by tigers. The lower class of pilgrims pile up bricks by the river side, and make an offering of the heap to Capila, as though it were a temple, while others, having made a hole in the earth, let the water into it, and then present it to the same deity, as if it were a tank. The Padma Puran contains a story respecting a king who was married to Sulachana, the daughter of a king who lived near Sagor, and the ruins of tanks and works of masonry prove that it was once inhabited.

In 1812, a European named Beaumont, then engaged in a manufactory of buff leather, for the appointments of the Bengal army, received a grant of 300 begahs of land on this island, for the purpose of carrying on his operations. In furtherance of this undertaking he instructed several natives in the use of the rifle, to guard his workmen, each of whom was supplied with a rest lance to defend himself. In company with these riflemen, Mr. Beaumont went over the greater part of the island, and from the examination, was of opinion that it had once been in a high state of cultivation, which however appears very improbable. At that period 1,000 men were employed clearing land on account of government, but their progress was so slow, that as they advanced, the jungle grew up behind them, and furnished fresh occupation. Mr. Beaumont offered to come under engagements wholly to clear the island within ten years, if a lease of it were granted to him; but this proposal being in direct contradiction to the system of not permitting Europeans to hold lands in India, on any account whatever, could not be acceded to.

Another European (Mr. William Jones) while exploring the island, discovered two complete bastions of brick and mud, the ruins of an old fortress, and he also offered to clear the island at his own expense, if a lease of a certain duration was granted to him. This offer was also declined; but the attention of government being thus attracted to Sagor, it was ordered to be surveyed and measured, when it was found to contain 429,806 begahs of dry land. It was

then advertised to be leased to natives for seven years free of all assessment, after which the grantees were to receive written documents from government, for whatever portions of land they had brought into actual cultivation, subject to a fixed rate in perpetuity, of eight annas per begah of 80 square cubits; the lands not brought under culture within that period to revert to government. Proposals for more than the whole quantity of land the island contained were soon received from native speculators, Europeans being still excluded; and the plan was in consequence extended to certain lands adjoining that island, encompassed by Channel creek, comprising, by estimation, 100 square miles, apparently in the same state of wilderness as the original island. In the conditions, however, of both sets of leases, a very important omission was subsequently discovered, no security having been required by the Bengal government from the applicants, that they would complete their undertaking within a given period. This oversight had a manifest tendency not only to frustrate the whole plan, but to occasion serious loss to the more active of the lease-holders; for as the island swarmed with tigers of the most enormous size, the only effectual method of extirpating them was by totally depriving them of shelter; should any of the undertakers therefore be deficient, either in funds or activity, to clear their grounds, the remaining jungle, by serving as a cover to those animals, would prove such a source of alarm and annoyance to all in the vicinity, as would render the cleared lands of no value.

In 1813, the Bengal government, adverting to the frequent losses of anchors and cables at this station, determined to establish mooring chains for the accommodation of ships, and also a depot of anchors, cables, and marine stores, to obviate the expense and delay occasioned in the transport of these articles, during the south-west monsoon, when ships requiring them, often experienced serious disappointment by their non-arrival. They also resolved to fix a vessel as a floating store-house for these necessaries, during the south-west monsoon, when, owing to the violence of the surf at Sagor, it might be difficult to furnish a timely supply from the shore. In pursuance of this plan, four sets of mooring chains were laid down in 1813, a tank excavated for the procuring of fresh water, and a small tract of jungle adjacent cleared, at a heavy expense to the Company, with the view of rendering the anchorage more salubrious; but it is greatly to be apprehended that no native efforts will ever accomplish this desirable object, and it might perhaps be eligible for the Supreme Government, in this one instance, to relax the regulation (otherwise laudable and necessary), which prohibits Europeans from becoming landholders, and permit them to settle in this island. Should a measure of this kind be adopted, a maritime city would soon start up sufficient for all the purposes of external commerce,

and thereby obviate the necessity of so many Europeans proceeding up the river to Calcutta, and from thence penetrating to the interior. If the ships could also at once receive their cargoes, and be dispatched from Sagor, the voyage would be greatly expedited, and the expense of port charges and insurance materially lessened.

Since the above remarks were written, the plan then recommended has actually taken place, government having leased the whole island to an association, composed of Europeans as well as natives, who have subscribed the sum of 250,000 rupees, subdivided into shares of 1,000 rupees each. The terms are, that it shall be free of rent for the first thirty years, and pay only four annas per begah (about 1*s.* 9*d.* per acre) ever after. The undertaking had in consequence commenced with the characteristic vigour of Europeans, and prior to the 1st of April, 1819, under the able management of Dr. Dunlop, one fifth of the island had been already cleared, and a broad passage effected through the remainder. In the course of these operations frequent vestiges of old buildings occurred, and the tigers perceiving that their rival, man, was going to resume his sway, were gradually withdrawing themselves to more secluded situations.—(*Public MS. documents, Police Reports MS. Ward, Johnson, J. P. Larkins, &c. &c. &c.*)

EDMONSTONE'S ISLE.—An island of alluvial formation, which in 1813 had not as yet raised its head above the water, and in 1818, had got only one stage beyond a sand bank. It lies in and about lat. 21° 35′ N. long. 88° 20′ E. and occupies the position laid down in the charts, as that of Sagor shoal, or a shoal on the eastern end of the upper part of Sagor sand, where, in 1818, it formed a distinct, and manifestly increasing island, under the shelter of the main land of Sagor, which separates the two openings of this branch of the Ganges. In January of the year above mentioned, it was about two miles long from east to west, and about half a mile in breadth from north to south. The western extremity is thrown up in small hillocks, some of which are considerably above the level of the sea, and the centre is so much above high water mark, as to be beyond the lash of the ocean, unless under very extraordinary circumstances. The width of the channel, when last examined, was between 4 and 5 miles, but many shoals were beginning to emerge, and the greater part of the intervening space was too shallow even for vessels of small burthen; so that in the course of a few years it will probably be filled up, and join the two islands.

At present the margin of the island is strewed over with trunks of trees, branches, leaves, roots, seeds, &c. washed from the opposite coasts, and brought down by the river; indeed the quantity of wood is so great, that boats proceed to it for the purpose of collecting fuel. On the uncovered spots, the seeds are

spontaneously sowing themselves, and some of the branches taking root, the vegetation being greatly promoted by the manure deposited by sea birds, and by the exuviæ of numberless small crabs. The central portion of the island in 1818, already exhibited a verdant appearance, and at a distance appeared to be covered with a thick and vivid grass, among which a number of small shrubs and trees were springing up. The principal plants are the ipomea pes capræ, and the salsola, especially the first, which is very plentiful, and causes the green appearance of the centre of the isle. This creeper strikes a strong and deep root into the sand, after which it runs along the surface for many yards, and being covered with fresh drifts of sand, it shoots up its winding branches in every direction, crossing and recrossing, until it forms a compact and intricate net work, binding the soil and entangling every fresh accession. This addition to the Bengal Province was first brought into notice by the marine survey of Sagor, in 1816. As yet it is only visited by wood cutters and fishermen, who, prior to 1818, had erected two huts thereon, dedicated to Siva, but no permanent habitation had then been established.—*(Miscellaneous printed documents.*

THE DISTRICT OF BACKERGUNGE.

This district was formed in the year 1800, from the southern quarter of the then too extensive district of Dacca Jelalpoor; and in 1801, the courts of justice and the residence of the judge and magistrate were removed from the town of Backergunge to Burrishol, which was made the capital of the district. A considerable proportion of this division named Boklah, or Ismaelpoor, extends chiefly along the western bank of the Puddah, or great Ganges, nearly to its mouth at the island of Rabnabad, which forms the south eastern angle of the Bengal Delta. About A. D. 1584, this territory was overwhelmed, and laid waste by an inundation, which was succeeded by the ravages of the Mughs, aided by the Portugueze then settled in Chittagong, from the combined effect of which it has not recovered to this day, and there still exist the ruins of three old mud forts built for defence against the incursions of the Mughs. In 1801 it was estimated to contain 4,564 square miles.

The lands of Backergunge, notwithstanding their low level and proximity to the sea, are very capable of cultivation, being annually, during the periodical rains, overflowed by the fresh water of, and fertilized by the slimy mould deposited by the Ganges. In consequence of this redundant moisture, and a hot sun, it produces annually two abundant crops of rice, and furnishes a considerable proportion of that description of grain which is consumed in, and exported from Calcutta. For the latter purpose, the dry season crop produced during the cold weather answers best. From the contiguity of this division to

the Sunderbunds, being almost a component part, the innumerable rivers by which it is intersected, and the quantity of jungle still covering its surface, it not only abounds with alligators and tigers of the most enormous size, but has been from the remotest periods greatly infested by dacoits, or river pirates. These dacoities, or gang robberies, are often attended with torture and murder, to compel the disclosure of concealed treasure, and always on the subsequent trial with perjury and subornation of perjury, practised for the most atrocious purposes.

A strong establishment of boats and sepoys has always been kept up in this district; but their efforts, and those of the magistrates, were for above thirty years wholly unavailing to suppress, or even to diminish the number of depredators, every remedy attempted appearing to aggravate the calamity. A long perseverance, however, at last succeeded, and in 1814 the judges of circuit reported, that the Backergunge district was in a state of security from violent depredation, which a few years back would have been considered a vain hope, and that offences of other descriptions did not prevail to any great extent. Here, as in other quarters of Bengal, the obstacles to the suppression of crime do not originate from any open resistance to the magisterial authority, but from the incredible difficulty of discriminating the innocent from the guilty.

In 1801 the officiating magistrate was of opinion, that although the cultivation and population had improved, the commerce and interchange of traffic had declined, and by the partitioning operations of the law of inheritance, the landed estates had been so divided and subdivided, that no possessor of a large estate remained. In the above year the total population was estimated at 926,723 inhabitants, in the proportion of five Hindoos to three Mahommedans, many of whom reside in boats the whole year. In the southern quarter there still exist several original Portugueze colonies, of probably two centuries duration, which exhibit a melancholy example to what an extreme degree it is possible for Europeans to degenerate. They are a meagre, puny, imbecile race, blacker than the natives, who hold them in the utmost contempt, and designate them by the appellation of Caula Ferenghies, or black Europeans.—(*Public MS. Documents, J. Grant, Crisp, &c. &c.*

BACKERGUNGE.—This place stands 120 miles east from Calcutta, and was the head station of the district until 1801, when the courts of justice were removed to Burrishol, since which event it has much declined in trade and consequence. Lat. 22° 42′ N. long. 89° 20′ E.

BURRISHOL.—This town is a recent creation, and may date its existence from the transfer of the courts of justice in 1801. It stands on the point of an oblong island, formed by the broad branches of the great Ganges, 72 miles south from Dacca, and has in its vicinity an immense expanse of water, with a wonderful facility of inland navigation. Lat. 22° 46′ N. 90° 17′ E.

SUTALURY.—A small town in the Backergunge district, 108 miles east from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 38′ N. long. 90° 10′ E.

GURNUDY.—A considerable town, situated on the west bank of the great branch of the Ganges, named the Puddah. Lat. 22° 59′ N. long. 90° 11′ E.

RABNABAD ISLE *(Ravana abad)*.—A low muddy island in the district of Backergunge, formed by the sediment deposited by the Rabnabad river, one of the branches of the Ganges, and separated from the main land by a very narrow strait. At neep tides it is scarcely above water, and at spring tides it is nearly submerged. It is notwithstanding covered with jungle, and abounds with deer, tigers, and alligators. In length it may be estimated at 15 miles by five the average breadth.

DUCKINSHAHABAZPOOR.—This large island is situated at the junction of the great river Megna, formed by the united waters of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, from the sediment of which it has originated. In length it may be estimated at 30 miles by 13 the average breadth. It is very low land, and at spring tides during the rains is almost wholly submerged. In the channels between Duckinshahabazpoor and the neighbouring islands, the bore, caused by the sudden influx of the tide, prevails with great violence, and renders the navigation extremely dangerous. Salt of an excellent quality is manufactured here on government account, at an establishment subordinate to the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

DISTRICT OF JESSORE *(Jasar, the Bridge)*.

This district is situated in the southern quarter of Bengal, between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Great Ganges; to the south by the sea; on the west it has Nuddea and Hooghly; and on the east Dacca Jelalpoor and Backergunge.

The southern portion of this district is in the Sunderbunds, and composed of salt marshy islands, formed by the alluvion and successive changes of the channels of the Ganges, and covered with wood. Some parts lie so low that bunds, or embankments, are necessary to protect them from inundation, the expense for repairing which in 1815 amounted to 18,000 rupees. The land is, notwithstanding, very fertile, and were it adequately peopled and cultivated, might be made to produce inexhaustible supplies of rice, for which the soil and climate are peculiarly suited. Even now, a great proportion of the southern tract, although so near to Calcutta, remains in a state of nature, covered with jungle, and only frequented by salt makers and river pirates, the latter continuing, but in a less degree, to infest the numberless branches of the Ganges

by which it is intersected. As may be inferred from the above description, the bridges are few, and the roads bad; the best being that from Calcutta to Dacca, which is kept in repair by the government convicts. Permanent edifices are very few, and mostly of Hindoo origin; neither are there any fortresses either of brick or mud.

Since the Decennial settlement, cultivation has certainly been considerably extended and improved, probably to one-sixteenth of the original quantity, and many unauthorized encroachments have been made by the adjacent zemindars on the company's property in the Sunderbunds. The uncultivated and fallow land, excluding the Sunderbunds, was estimated in 1802, to bear the proportion of one-eighth to the cultivated, and the jungle or waste land permanently uncultivated at one-sixteenth of the whole. The most valuable articles of produce are salt, indigo, tobacco, ganjah, mulberry, pawn, betel nut, and long pepper. Of these, salt is monopolized as a source of revenue by the government; and mulberry trees only raised with a view to the silk investment: but the indigo cultivation is greatly on the increase.

In 1802, the zemindar's profit in Jessore was estimated at 20 per cent. on the land-tax; but many estates are so divided and subdivided into such minute portions, as to occasion much litigation on the part of the proprietors, and infinite trouble to the revenue officers. In the same year, the sum received for the produce of the rent free lands, was estimated at only 7 per cent. on the land-tax of the whole; and on comparison, the government lands subject to the land-tax were found generally in a better state of cultivation, than those exempt from that burthen. When lands are exposed to sale, on account of revenue deficiencies, the most frequent purchasers are the wealthy native inhabitants of Calcutta. In 1814, the land-tax paid to Government amounted to 1,197,561 rupees, and the abkarry to 10,486 rupees.

In 1801, by the directions of the Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-General, the board of revenue in Bengal circulated various questions to the judges and collectors of the different districts, on statistical subjects. The result of their replies tended to establish the fact, that the district of Jessore contains 1,200,000 inhabitants, in the proportion of nine Mahommedans to seven Hindoos. In 1813, gang robbery or dacoity, formerly so prevalent in this territory, had become nearly extinct; only three instances having been reported in the course of the whole year.

The zemindary of Jessore was originally in the revenue books named Yusefpoor, and was conferred early in the 18th century, by Jaffier Khan, or Kishenram, a Khaist from Orissa. The principal towns are Jessore, or Moorley, Culna, and Mahmudpoor.—*(J. Grant, W. Parker, J. Shakespear, &c. &c. &c.)*

MAHMUDSHI *(Muhmudshahi)*.—A zemindary in the Jessore district, which was formerly entirely surrounded by that of Rajshahy. In 1784, it contained 844 square miles, and had been held by the Brahmin family of Deo from the time of the Soubahdar Jaffier Khan. Like the rest of the southern parts of Bengal, it is intersected by innumerable branches of the Ganges, and well situated for inland commerce. In some parts the mulberry is cultivated, but rice and esculents are its staple productions.—*(J. Grant, &c.)*

NULDINGAH *(Naladanga)*.—A town in the Jessore district, 74 miles N.E. by N. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 89° 7′ E.

MOORLEY *(Murali)*.—A town in the Jessore district of which it is the capital, 62 miles N. E. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 7′ N. long. 89° 15′ E. It is named also Jessore, and is the residence of the judge and collector.

CULNA *(Khalana)*.—A town in the Jessore district, 70 miles E. N. E. from Calcutta, lat. 22° 50′ long. 89° 32′ E. This was formerly the head station of the Roymungul salt agency.

BOOSNAH.—A town and zemindary in the Jessore district, 50 miles W. by S. from Dacca, lat. 23° 31′ N. long. 89° 39′ E.

MAHMUDPOOR.—A town in the Jessore district, 75 miles N. E. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 24′ N. long. 89° 34′ E.

MIRZANAGUR.—A town in the Jessore district, 53 miles N. E. from Calcutta, lat. 22° 56′ N. long. 89° 13′ E.

RYNABAD *(Ghainabad)*.—This small village is situated on the west side of the Boirub (Bhairava) river, 80 miles E. by N. from Calcutta, lat. 22° 42′ N. long. 89° 44′ E. For many years after the British obtained possession of Bengal, rumours were current, that extensive ruins of magnificent cities existed among the jungles of the Sunderbunds, and particularly in the vicinity of Rynabad; but after repeated investigations, none have been discovered, nor is it probable, that any very ancient ruins should be found in a territory, which is itself of recent formation and destitute of fresh water.

THE DISTRICT OF HOOGHLY.

This district is situated between the 22d and 23d degrees of north latitude, and is of recent creation, being composed of sections from the different districts adjacent, and is the least extensive within the division of the lower provinces. To the north it is bounded by the districts of Burdwan and Kishenagur; on the south it has the sea; on the east Jessore and the Sunderbunds; and on the west, Midnapoor. The whole of this territory consists of low flat land, very fertile, but much covered with jungle on the sea coast, where it is remarkably unhealthy. Like the other southern divisions, it has an excellent inland navigation, being

intersected in every direction by rivers and their branches, which were formerly rendered almost impassable by the numbers of dacoits or river pirates. On the banks of the rivers near to the sea, salt of an excellent quality is manufactured on government account, which, in the opinion of the natives, possesses peculiar sanctity, as being extracted from the mud of the most sacred branch of the Ganges. The cultivation and population of this division are certainly improving, and some religious and substantial buildings have been constructed on the banks of the river; but, notwithstanding its proximity to Calcutta, which presents a constant market for its surplus produce, it is surprising how large a proportion still remains in a state of nature, the asylum of tigers, alligators, and a great variety of insects, vermin, and reptiles.

In this district, within the jurisdiction of the magistrate, there are no seminaries for education of any repute. In 1801, there were 30 students instructed in the Persian and Arabic, at Seetapoor, at an institution maintained by the produce of lands under a grant confirmed by Governor Hastings. The principles of Hindoo law are taught by pundits in about 150 private schools, in each of which the students muster from 5 to 20. The scholars here, unlike similar establishments in Europe, are maintained by such preceptors as can afford it, and the rest by contributions from the more wealthy inhabitants. Almost every village has its resident instructor, by whom reading, writing, and accounts are taught; and the inhabitants of this tract, generally, in consequence of their contiguity to the Presidency, are better acquainted with the existing laws of the country, than the individuals of most other districts. In 1801, the total number was estimated at one million, in the proportion of three Hindoos to one Mahommedan. In 1814, the town of Chandercona contained 18,145; and that of Keerpay 10,525 inhabitants.

In 1813, although the crime of gang robbery, attended with torture, had experienced some diminution, still the number of robberies coming under that denomination, unattended with aggravating circumstances, was greater than in any district within the Calcutta division of circuit. Of 777 persons supposed to have been concerned in the perpetration of this crime, during the course of that year, only 78 were apprehended and brought to trial; and of the computed value of property plundered, amounting to 13,795 rupees, only 130 rupees worth were recovered by the police officers. Gang robberies, committed by Choars, were then very prevalent in the south-west quarter of Hooghly, bordering on Midnapoor, from whence these miscreants had been in a great measure expelled and dispersed, by the exertions of the magistrate. These gangs of Choars generally consisted of from 30 to 60 men, but without any organization or leader of decided preeminence. Upon the whole, in 1814, this district, with reference

to its size and vicinity to the seat of government, was considered comparatively much behind as to improvement in the state of its internal police.—*(J. Shakespeare, Brook, W. B. Bayley, &c. &c. &c.)*

Hooghly River.—This river communicates its name to the district just described, which it intersects, and is itself formed by the junction of the Cossimbazar and Jellinghy, the two westernmost branches of the Ganges, after which it flows past Calcutta, and is the only branch of the Ganges that is navigated by large vessels, although the entrance is dangerous, and the channel up to the town of extremely difficult passage. When it is joined by the Roopnarrain river, a very expanded sheet of water is formed, but it has many shoals; and as it directly faces the approach from the sea, while the Hooghly turns to the right, it occasions the loss of many vessels, which are carried up the Roopnarrain by the force of the tide. The eddy, caused by the bend of the Hooghly, has at this place formed a most dangerous sand, named the James and Mary, around which the channel is never the same for a week together, requiring frequent surveys.

The bore, or sudden influx of the tide, commences at Hooghly point, where the river first contracts its width, and is perceptible above Hooghly town. So quick is its motion that it hardly employs four hours in travelling from one to the other, although the distance is nearly 70 miles. It does not run on the Calcutta side, but along the opposite bank, from whence it crosses at Chitpoor, about four miles above Fort William, and proceeds with great violence past Barnagore, Duckinsore, &c. On its approach, boats must immediately quit the shore, and seek for safety in deep water in the middle of the river, which is little affected. At Calcutta it sometimes occasions an instantaneous rise of five feet.

Only that part of the Ganges which lies in the most direct line from Gangoutri to Sagor island, is considered holy by the Hindoos, and named the Ganga, or Bhagirathi. The Hooghly river therefore of European geographers is considered the true Ganges.—*(Rennell, Lord Valentia, Col. Colebrooke, &c. &c.)*

Hooghly. This ancient town is situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, 26 miles above Calcutta. Lat. 22° 54′ N. long. 88° 28′ E. During the Mogul government this was a town of great consequence, being the bunder, or port of the western arm of the Ganges, where the duties on merchandize were collected. The French, Dutch, Portugueze, and Danes, had each a factory here, and subsequently were each permitted to possess a town; all comprehended within the extent of ten miles along the river. Hooghly is now comparatively of little note; but is still large, prosperous, and well inhabited. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows. " There are two emporiums a mile distant

from each other, one called Satgong, the other Hooghly with its dependencies; both of which are in the possession of Europeans." It is remarkable that the name of Hooghly is not mentioned in Faria de Souza's History of Bengal, where it is named Golin.

The Dutch, in 1625, and the English, in 1640, were permitted to build factories at this place, but their trade was greatly restricted, and subjected to continual exactions. In 1632, the first serious quarrel that occurred between the Moguls and Europeans happened at Hooghly, which then belonged to the Portugueze. The Moguls invested it with a strong army, and the siege continued three months and a half, during which time the Portugueze made many offers of submission, and agreed to pay a tribute; but all terms were rejected by the besiegers, who, having sprung a mine, carried the place by assault. The slaughter of the Portugueze was very great; many in attempting to escape to their boats were drowned, a few reached their ships in safety, but these also were immediately attacked. The captain of the largest ship, on board of which were embarked 2000 men, women, and children, with all their wealth, rather than yield to the Mahommedans, blew up his ship, and many others imitated this example. Out of 64 large vessels, 57 grabs, and 200 sloops, which were anchored opposite to the town, only one grab and two sloops got away; and these owed their safety to the bridge of boats, constructed by the Moguls below Hooghly, at Seerpoor, having been broken by catching the flames from the conflagration of the fleet.

In 1686, the English were involved in hostilities by the imprudence of three of their soldiers, who quarrelling in the bazar with some of the Nabob's peons, were wounded. The garrison of the English factory were called out, and an action ensued, in which the Nabob's troops were defeated; 60 of them being killed, a considerable number wounded, and a battery of 11 guns spiked and destroyed. At the same time the town of Hooghly was cannonaded by the fleet under Captain Nicholson, and 500 houses burned. This was the first action fought by the English in Bengal, but the result was a disgraceful peace; the Mogul government then subsisting in full vigour. An arrangement was afterwards made with the foujdar, or military superintendant of the district; but the agent and council, considering that Hooghly was an open town, retired on the 20th of December to Chuttanuttee, or Calcutta. *(Bruce, Stewart, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

KEERPOY.—This town is the seat of a commercial residency, and stands in lat. 22° 46′ N. long. 87° 44′ E. 50 miles W. N. W. from Calcutta. In 1814, it was found after investigation to contain 10,525 inhabitants.

HIDJELLEE (*Hijala*).—This town stands on the west side of the Hooghly, 55 miles S. S. W. from Calcutta, and is actually with the small district attached to it, situated in the province of Orissa, but it has been so long, and so intimately connected with the Bengal province, that it may now be considered as an integral portion. Lat. 21° 50′ N. long. 88° 10′ E.

The land about Hidjellee is of two descriptions; the first, fresh or arable, is preserved from the inundation of the tides by embankments running parallel to, and at some distance from the rivers and numerous inlets which intersect the whole territory, and the repairs of which, in 1815, cost 27,000 rupees. The second, or salt land, is that portion exposed to the overflowing of the tides, usually called the churs, or banks, where mounds of earth, strongly impregnated with saline particles, named kalaries, or working places, are formed. each of these heaps is estimated, on a medium, to yield 233 maunds (80 pounds each) of salt, requiring the labour of seven manufacturers, who, by an easy process of filtration and boiling, are enabled to complete their operations from November to June, before the setting in of the periodical rains.

During the Mogul government Hidjellee was the capital of a foujdarry, or military station, comprehending 1,098 square miles, extending along the margin of the Hooghly river, where it unites with the Bay of Bengal. It was first dismembered from the Soubah of Orissa, and annexed to Bengal, in the reign of Shah Jehan. The fresh water lands are very productive, and yield excellent crops, when properly cultivated; and with a view to the improvement of the inland navigation, two canals have been cut within the last ten years, but the result has not proved so successful as was anticipated, the tolls not defraying the current expenses, and on the whole they have proved a losing concern to government, at whose expense they were constructed. In 1814, the district attached to this place yielded a land revenue of 291,448 rupees, exclusive of an immense sum annually realized by the salt manufactured.

In 1687, during a rupture with Aurengzebe, the East India Company's forces took and fortified Hidjellee, and destroyed above 40 sail of that emperor's vessels. They afterwards repulsed the repeated attacks made by the Nabob of Bengal, although the garrison was in a very sickly state.—(*J. Grant, MS. documents, Bruce, &c.*)

CULPEE.—This town stands on the east bank of the river Hooghly, 33 miles in a straight line below Calcutta. Lat. 22° 6′ N. long. 88° 25′ E. The shores here are a bed of mud, and the banks of the river covered with trees and thick jungle. Opposite to the anchorage of the ships, which lie about half a mile from the shore, is a creek, and at its entrance the town of Culpee is situated.

The crews of the ships lying here suffer dreadfully from its extreme unhealthiness, numbers daily falling sacrifices to the pestilential exhalations from the rotten jungle and mud.—*(Johnson, &c.)*

KEDGEREE *(Kijari)*.—A village and bazar in the province of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the Hooghly river, which here expands to a breadth of nearly nine miles across. Lat. 21° 55′ N. long. 88° 16′ E. This is a much healthier station than Diamond harbour, and ships of war, unless compelled by strong reasons, should never go higher up the river. A naval officer on the part of the Company is established here, who makes daily reports to the government of the ships that arrive and sail. During the rainy season, ships sometimes lie here for a long time, on account of the freshes of the river. On shore the country is a low, swampy, salt morass, and particularly pernicious to European constitutions. Many tropical fruits and other refreshments may be procured here.

DIAMOND HARBOUR.—A harbour in the river Hooghly, about 34 miles below Calcutta in a straight line, but much more by the windings of the river. This place and anchorage are singularly unhealthy, especially in the months of July, August, and September, during and after the periodical rains. This is partly owing to the proximity of low swampy shores, where a number of sluggish currents open into the stream of the Hooghly, floating down a quantity of vegetable and animal substances, which emit the most offensive vapours. To these natural evils, are superadded many artificial ones, all contributing to the destruction of the seamen. The great precautions, taken from the best motives, to prevent their procuring wholesome spirits, drives them to the use of the most deleterious species of Bengal arrack, which no vigilance on the part of their officers could prevent. Their food consists of half ripe, half rotten fruit, stale eggs, and overdriven beef, and their drink on shore most execrable water, generally procured from a filthy puddle. Add to this the society of loathsome prostitutes, excessive labour in the sun, want of manly recreation during their leisure hours, and the absence of the requisite medical assistance, and the combined effect will account for the mortality of the ships' crews, while lying at Diamond Harbour. In 1814, the Bengal government set about seriously to endeavour to remedy these evils; but if practicable, it would be preferable to abandon this place of skulls, and resort solely to Sagor island.

At Diamond Harbour the Company's ships usually unload their outward, and receive on board the greater part of their homeward cargoes, from whence they proceed to Sagor roads, where the remainder is shipped. The government ground here consists of about 800 begahs, enclosed by an embankment raised to prevent inundation, and containing the Company's warehouses for ships' stores, rigging, &c.; the provisions and refreshments, such as they are, are purchased at

the neighbouring villages. The adjacent country is in a high state of cultivation, and yields plentiful crops, although strongly impregnated with salt, occasioned by the inundation which occurs towards the autumnal equinox.—*(John Elliott, &c. &c. &c.)*

FULTA *(Phalata, fertility)*.—This large village stands on the east bank of the river Hooghly, 20 miles S. S. W. in a straight direction, but much more by the winding of the river. Lat. 22° 19′ N. long. 88° 20′ E. The anchorage here is safe, ships being protected from the swell of the sea. The bottom is a stiff clay, in which the anchors hold so fast, that it is difficult to weigh them.

TUMLOOK.—This town is included in the Hooghly district, and stands about 35 miles S. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 17′ N. long. 88° 2′ E. The lands in the neighbourhood lie extremely low, and are protected from inundation by embankments, which are supported at a great expense, (in 1815, 30,000 rupees,) but are, notwithstanding occasionally broken by the freshes, and the adjacent country submerged. Tumlook is the head quarters of an agency for the manufacture of salt on account of government, connected with that of Hidjellee. The article is prepared by filtration from the mud of the Hooghly river, and is esteemed of peculiar value by the Hindoos, as being extracted on the banks of the holiest branch of the Ganges.

Major Wilford is of opinion, that there were in remote times kings of Tamralipta or Tumlook, one of whom, A. D. 1001, sent an embassy to China. He also thinks that by the inhabitants of that empire he was styled Tammonielieou. —*(Sir H. Strachey, Wilford, &c.)*

SATGONG *(Satgrama, the seven villages)*.—This was formerly a town of note, but is now an inconsiderable village, situated on a small creek of the river Hooghly, about four miles to the N. W. of the town of Hooghly in Bengal. In 1566, and probably later, it was a large trading city, in which the European merchants had their factories for procuring the productions of Bengal, and at that period of time the Satgong river was capable of floating small vessels.—*(Rennell, &c.)*

CHANDERCONA.—This is a considerable town in the Hooghly district, about 55 miles west by north from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 45′ N. long. 87° 44′ E. In 1814, the population of this place when investigated by Mr. Bayley amounted to 18,145 inhabitants.

DISTRICT OF THE JUNGLE MAHALS.

This district, like the preceding, consists of dissections from the contiguous old jurisdictions, but the limits of the whole are in this quarter so extremely ill defined, that it is impossible to discriminate them. The head quarters of the

public functionaries are at Bancoorah, near Chatna. Lat. 23° 20′ long. 87° 10′ E. The name of this district implies a waste territory, and backward stage of civilization, yet it appears from report of the circuit judge in 1815, that no instance of gang robbery or arson had occurred during the six previous months. Teak trees have been planted at the expense of government, both at Bauleah, and in the Jungle Mahals, where in 1813, some plants brought from the botanical garden had attained the height of 25 feet.

DISTRICT OF THE TWENTY-FOUR PERGUNNAHS.

This district is situated chiefly to the south of Calcutta, on the east side of the river Hooghly. In extent it comprehends about 882 square miles, and was first formed into a landholder's jurisdiction in December, 1757, and constituted the zemindary of the Company, and jaghire of Lord Clive. In 1765, a ten years' prolongation of the jaghire to Lord Clive was obtained, after which it reverted to the East India Company. Since that period, from the quantity of waste land brought into cultivation, and the number of ghauts, (landing places), religious temples, and other substantial buildings constructed, it may be inferred, that this territory has progressively improved in cultivation, population, and commerce. In 1801, there were within its boundaries 190 seminaries, in which Hindoo law, grammar, and metaphysics, were taught. These institutions were maintained from the produce of certain charity lands, and by the voluntary contributions of opulent Hindoos; the annual expense was estimated at 19,500 rupees. At that period there was but one madrissa, or college, for instruction in the Mahommedan law. This district contains no brick or mud forts, but such as are extremely old, or in ruins, and although so close to the presidency, is greatly infested by gang robbers and river pirates. In 1813 the police was considered as in an evident state of improvement; but under many disadvantages, owing to its local situation, and to its surrounding the actual capital of India, which will always create great difficulties in the maintenance of an efficient police from its proving a focus of attraction to the dissolute and dishonest.

In the twenty-four pergunnahs, the zemindar's profit is supposed to be considerably more than ten per cent. on their land tax, some, in particular, not paying one rupee per thousand of the rents they receive from their estates. Many of the existing landholders are, or have been, the dewans of European gentlemen. Indigo is the most valuable commodity raised, but experience proves it to be an article of very precarious profit; the planters being obliged to advance cash for the weed to the cultivators, before a grain of the seed is put into the ground, and the latter being frequently influenced by the zemindars to pervert the money to other purposes, and then abscond. It is a fact, however, that the

peasantry in the neighbourhood of an indigo factory, appear always in better plight, and more independent of the zemindars, than elsewhere. The lands paying land tax are usually found better cultivated than the rent free lands. The produce of the jumma or land tax, in 1814, amounted to 1,249,003 rupees, and the abkarry to 94,675 rupees.

In the twenty-four pergunnahs and contiguous districts, the Hindoo inhabitants are reckoned in proportion of three to one Mahommedan, and the number of inhabitants of all descriptions, taken in the actual enumeration of the farms, may be estimated at 1,625,000. If to these be added the inhabitants of Calcutta, computed by the police magistrates at 600,000, the total population of the twenty-four pergunnahs, and the adjacent districts within twenty miles, will amount to 2,225,000 persons.—(*J. Grant, Police Reports, F. Fitzroy, &c.*)

BUDGEBUDGE (*Bhujabhuj*).—This small town stands on the east side of the Hooghly river, ten miles below Calcutta in a straight line; but almost double the number following the windings of the river. Lat. 22° 29′ N. long. 88° 20′ E.

During the government of Seraje ud Dowlah, the last independent nabob of Bengal, this place had a separate fortress, which was on the 29th of December, 1756, besieged in form, and a breach effected, by the forces under Admiral Watson and Colonel Clive, who intended a general assault before day-break. During the night, however, it was most informally stormed by a sailor of the name of Strahan, who, happening to get drunk, wandered up to the breach and fired a pistol at some of the garrison, who, supposing he must be followed by the whole army, fled out by the opposite side, and left him in possession of the place.—(*Ives, &c.*)

THE DISTRICT OF NUDDEA (*Navadwipa, the New Island*).

This district is situated immediately to the north of Calcutta, between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Rajshahy; on the south by the 24 Pergunnahs and Jessore; to the east it has Jessore; and to the west is separated from Burdwan by the Hooghly river.

In the ancient records of the province this district is named Oukerah, but more recently received that of Kishenagur, from the zemindar who held it. In the beginning of the 18th century, it was bestowed on Ragooram, a Brahmin, the ancestor of the present family. The district is large, and wonderfully fertile in all the dearer productions of an Indian soil; but this being remarkably light, the land is only capable of undergoing tillage for three successive years, after which it must be left fallow for an equal period. The most valuable articles of produce are mulberry trees, hemp, flax, tobacco, sugar, oush (a plant from which a red dye is procured), and peepul. In 1802, it was supposed that the cultivation of

the district subsequent to the first year of the Decennial settlement, afterwards rendered permanent, had increased one eighth, and that the proportion of the uncultivated land to the cultivated as it then stood was as follows:

Jungle	105,000 begahs
Ground lying fallow	1,959,500
For cultivation	1,959,500

In this district there are seven descriptions of rent free land, the aggregate of which may be computed at 900,000 begahs, but the revenue lands are generally observed to be the best cultivated. The possessors of these rent free lands seldom give leases, on which account the tenants are liable to be much imposed on and dispossessed, should their farms improve and crops prove redundant. While, on the other hand, government renters, being protected in the possession of their land, take more pains with it, and prefer it, although encumbered with a land tax. Occasionally, when rent free land is managed by the proprietor, very good cultivation is seen. In general proprietors of estates receive much more than ten per cent. on their land tax. With regard to water carriage this district is singularly happy, possessing an easy and quick transportation by the river Hooghly, the Jellinghy, and the Issamutty, yet the revenue yielded bears no comparison to that realized in the adjacent district of Burdwan, which does not enjoy so important an advantage. In 1814, the produce of the jumma, or land tax, amounted to 1,191,133 rupees, and of the abkarry to 11,951 rupees. There are here many embankments to prevent the devastation of the rivers; but the soil is so sandy and light, that it is very ill adapted for the formation of embankments capable of resisting any great lateral pressure. There are at present no mud or brick forts.

In 1802, the collector, in reply to the queries circulated by the Board of Revenue, stated, that in the district of Nuddea there were then 5,749 hamlets and villages, supposed to contain 127,405 houses, which at six persons to a house would give 764,430 inhabitants, of whom he supposed 286,661 were Mahommedans; but from the returns of other districts, since made with increased accuracy, it is probable, that the above sum total is much under the real number. With respect to the police of the district, it appears to have greatly improved subsequent to the year 1807, when gang robbery in Bengal had attained its acme, for the superintendant of police in 1814 reported, that during the preceding six months not one gang robbery had occurred, although eight murders, or manslaughters, had been committed in consequence of cattle trespasses, and disputes about boundaries. In 1784, by Major Rennell's mensuration, this district contained 3,115 square miles, but it has probably since received some accession of territory, as one of the reasons stated, in 1814, for the difficulty of

establishing an efficient police was, the great extent under the superintendence of the magistrate. The chief towns are Nuddea, Santipoor, Kishenagur, and Chogdah.—*(J. Grant, Sir Alexander Scton, &c. &c.)*

NUDDEA.—This town stands at the confluence of the Jellinghy and Cossimbazar branches of the Ganges, where their junction forms the Hooghly, 60 miles north from Calcutta, lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 88° 24′ E.

This was the capital of a Hindoo principality, anterior to the Mahommedan conquest, and was taken and entirely destroyed, A. D. 1204, by Mahommed Bukhtyar Khilijee, the first Mahommedan invader of Bengal. In more modern times it was the seat of a Brahminical seminary of learning, which apparently must have declined to a very obscure condition, as in 1801, the judge and magistrate, while replying to the Marquis Wellesley's queries, declares, that he knows not of any seminaries in the district, in which either the Mahommedan or Hindoo law is taught. We learn, however, from the government records, that prior to 1811, a certain sum was disbursed for the support of the Hindoo college at Nuddea, but wholly inefficient for the attainment of the end proposed, the preservation and revival of Hindoo literature. During that year, under Lord Minto's administration, more vigorous measures were carried into execution, to reorganize and augment the existing college; on which occasion, two chief pundits were allowed with salaries of 100 rupees per month, and ten inferior ones at 60 rupees per month each. Prizes also to the best native scholars were allowed, to the first class of 800 rupees; second, 400 rupees; third 200 rupees; and fourth 100 rupees; besides an honorary dress to each of the most proficient, consisting of a cloth of little value: the whole expenditure, including the library, stationery, prizes and dresses, not to exceed a total expenditure of 12,876 rupees.—*(Lord Minto, Abul Fazel, J. Grant, &c.)*

KISHENAGUR.—This town stands at the south-east of the Jellinghy branch of the Ganges, 62 miles N. by E. from Calcutta, in the district of Nuddea, to which it occasionally communicates its name, lat. 23° 26′ N. long. 88° 35′ E.

SANTIPOOR.—A town on the east side of the Hooghly river, where the Company have a commercial factory and resident, 43 miles N. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 13′ N. long. 88° 33′ E.

CHOGDAH.—This place stands on the east bank of the Hooghly river, about 34 miles north from Calcutta, and was formerly noted for voluntary drownings by the Hindoos; which, however, has latterly become a mere ceremony of immersion, without any fatal result, lat. 23° 3′ N. long. 88° 38′ E.

PLASSEY *(Palasi)*.—This town, celebrated for the battle, or rather route, which decided the fate of Bengal, and ultimately of Hindostan, is situated in the district of Nuddea, about 30 miles south from Moorshedabad, 23° 45′ N. long.

88° 15′ E. On this occasion the British forces under Colonel Clive consisted of 900 Europeans, 100 topasses, and 2000 sepoys, with eight six pounders, and two howitzers. The Nabob's army, if such a rabble deserve the name, was estimated at 50,000 foot, and 50 pieces of cannon, besides about 40 French soldiers, fugitives from Chandernagore, and the only component part which he could depend on.

SIBNIBAS *(Sivanivasa)*.—This town is situated in lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 88° 49′ E. about 64 miles N. N. E. from Calcutta. During the rainy season, there is a short passage for boats past this place bound to Calcutta, from the south eastern quarter of Bengal, which becomes quite dry when the waters drain off towards the winter season.

AGHADEEP.—At this place there is a celebrated image of Krishna, much reverenced by the Hindoos, who assemble in prodigious numbers during a particular festival, and perform worship to it. At present the image is supposed to bring the owner in about 25,000 rupees per annum. Some time ago the late Raja Nobkishen seized it for a debt due to him; the lawful owner, however, regained it by a suit at law, but not before a counterfeit one had been made exactly resembling it.—*(Ward, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF MIDNAPOOR *(Mednipur.)*

A district in the province of Orissa, but so long attached to Bengal, that it may be considered a component portion of the province. To the north it is bounded by the districts of Ramghur and Burdwan; to the south by various tributary zemindaries; to the east it has Burdwan, Hooghly, and the sea; and to the west, tributary zemindaries and part of Ramghur. In 1784, in all its dimensions it contained 6102 square miles; but since the annexations from Burdwan and Hooghly, the total area is probably equal to 7300 square miles.

In 1801, the collector was of opinion, that the cultivation of Midnapoor had not improved or extended since the first year of the Decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, which he attributed principally to a severe dearth in 1799, which carried off a considerable number of the inhabitants. At that period no considerable agricultural improvements had taken place in any part of the country, while large tracts of land in the pergunnahs of Jellasore and Midnapoor, chiefly near the jungle, which many recollected to have been in high cultivation, were unoccupied, and had relapsed to a state of nature. The officer above mentioned was also of opinion, that two thirds of the district consisted of jungle, the greater part inaccessible and unfit for cultivation, which appears inconsistent with the immense population, (one million and a half) assigned to the territory, both by himself and the magistrate. The clearing of these jungles can only be effected by the inhabitants of them, as the people of the open country are averse

to settle there, and very few of the jungle zemindars have the means of improving their estates.

Some parts of these jungles are occupied by a poor miserable proscribed race of men called Sontals, despised on account of their low caste by the inhabitants of the plain country, who would on no account allow any one of them to fix himself in their villages. The peasantry in the vicinity, by way of distinction, call themselves good creditable people, while they scarcely admit the soutals within the pale of humanity; yet the latter are a mild, sober, industrious people, and remarkable for sincerity and good faith. The zemindars give them no leases, yet on the whole treat them well; for such is their timidity that they fly on the least oppression, and are no more heard of. Notwithstanding they hold their lands on such easy terms, and scarcely ever have their verbal tenures violated, they are said to be naked, half-starved, and apparently in the lowest stage of human misery; a result we should not have expected from the character above assigned them. Their villages are generally situated between the cultivated plains and the thick jungles, in order that they may protect the crops of their more fortunate neighbours from deer and wild swine. In some instances they have been known to till their lands with considerable success, and raise good crops of rice and collie; but all that their vigilance can preserve from the ravages of wild beasts, is extorted from them by the rapacity of the money lenders. To these miscreants, the sontals, who have but a slender knowledge of the value of money, pay interest at the rate of 100 per cent for their food, and nearly 150 per centum for their seed; so that when their crops are ready, little or nothing remains for themselves.

The cultivation here is almost entirely increased by the increase of population, and is very little promoted by plans for the improvement of agriculture, or by revenue regulations. Waste and jungle land, if in a low situation and fit for rice, may be brought into cultivation in one season, and the poorest man can undertake it. The class of men labourers who work for hire is not very numerous, most of the land being tilled by the peasantry who pay the rent. The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are indigo, betel nut, and sugar; but the plantations of the two first do not consist of more than a few hundred begahs: the value of the sugar about fifty thousand rupees. In 1801, the produce of the rent free lands was estimated at one-fifth of that subject to the land-tax, which last, although let at the highest, is the best cultivated. In 1814, the net jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, was 1,491,240 rupees, and the abkarry or excise 10,405 rupees.

The manufactures of Midnapoor are few, and much declined in quantity from what they were a century ago, when the Europeans principally frequented Bala-

sore and Pipley. The inland commerce appears stationary, and there are no extensive commercial enterprizes carrying on, except by Europeans, the Company having much reduced their investment. Some sanaes are made in the district, and more are imported from the contiguous countries to the south and east; plain gauzes, adapted for the use of the country, are also woven. The European planters have introduced the cultivation of indigo, but the quantity exported has never been great. There are hardly any instances of the zemindars or others, of the very few who possess wealth, lending it out to individuals on interest, or vesting it in the Company's funds. They prefer hiding it as their ancestors did before them. Merchants, and persons having commercial transactions with Calcutta, frequently have government paper to a considerable extent.

In this district there are several forts of mud and stone, but they are now in a state of decay. They were built many years ago, and intended for the defence of the inhabitants against the Maharattas, for which purpose they were effectual. One of them named Bataw, situated in the jungle pergunnah of Baugree, lately contained 20 pieces of unserviceable artillery, which were removed by the magistrate. The western parts of Midnapoor were formerly much exposed to the depredations of Maharatta robbers, which obliged the zemindars to maintain large bodies of armed men for their protection. Besides these, few natives keep arms of any description, which, perhaps, on account of the prevalence of gang robbery, they should be encouraged to do. With respect to religious buildings, there are none of any consequence. The natives are sometimes, from motives of piety, induced to dig a tank, but there are few new works of this kind. The remains of the old ones attest the superior opulence of former times, or perhaps rather show that property was then more unequally divided, than at present. The private houses of the zemindars, and other men of note, consist either of forts in ruins, or of wretched huts; nor does it appear that they ever were better off in this respect. It may seem surprising that the opulent and respectable natives are so seldom tempted to imitate the commodious buildings erected by Europeans, and that they have acquired no taste for gardening; but to the climate, and the uniformity and simplicity of their manners, must be attributed their perseverance in constructing for their own accommodation, nothing but the slightest and most miserable huts.

Like the rest of the Bengalese, the people here do not work with the view of improving their circumstances, but merely of subsisting their families. They scarcely ever think of procuring themselves better food or better accommodation; and are not stimulated to any efforts of industry, by the security they enjoy, but solely by the calls of hunger. They have no luxuries, unless tobacco may be called one: they are always in debt, and borrow at enormous

interest, and when by any accident they earn a rupee or two, they remain idle until it is spent.

Within the Midnapoor jurisdiction celibacy is extremely uncommon; an unmarried Hindoo man of 25, or an unmarried girl of 15, being very rare occurrenees. The great bulk of the people live a sober, regular, domestic life, and seldom leave their houses, not being called on for the performance of military service, or public labour. Very few marriages are unproductive; but the women, becoming at an early age debilitated and decrepid, do not probably bear so many children as in Europe; total barrenness is however extremely rare. Polygamy, prostitution, religious austerity, and the circumstance of young widows seldom marrying a second time, are the chief obstacles, though of no great magnitude, to the increase of the inhabitants. Among the adjuvating causes of increase may be reckoned the extreme facility of rearing children. In this territory no infants perish of cold, of diseases proceeding from dirt and bad accommodation, nor, except during famines, which are so rare as scarcely to deserve mention, of unhealthy food. The small-pox sometimes carries off multitudes of children; innoculation, although it has been known for ages, being little practised. As soon as a child is weaned it lives on rice like its parents, requires no care whatever, goes naked for two or three years, and seldom experiences any sickness. A great majority of the inhabitants of this district have preserved their original simplicity, and the characteristic features of the Hindoos. They are less quarrelsome and give less trouble than the natives of the neighbouring districts. Being little in the habit of engaging in law suits, they thereby escape the contagion of the courts of justice.

In Midnapoor there are not any schools where the Hindoo and Mahommedan laws are taught, but in every village there are schools for teaching the Bengalese language and accounts to children in poor circumstances. The teachers, although persons well qualified for what they undertake, are persons no ways respectable, their rank of life being low, and their emolument scanty. The children sit in the open air or under a shed, and learn to read, write, and cast accounts, for one or two annas (2*d.* to 4*d.*) per month. A person charged with several thefts being sent for by the judge and asked his occupation, said it was teaching of children, and on inquiry it appeared he was eminent in his line. On his conviction, it seemed to excite no surprise among the natives, that a person of his profession should turn out a thief. In opulent Hindoo families teachers are retained as servants. Persian and Arabic are taught for the most part by the Moolavies, who in general have a few scholars in their houses, whom they support as well as instruct. Thus Persian and Arabic students, though of respectable families, are considered as living on charity, and

they are total strangers to expense or dissipation. There was formerly a Mahommedan college at the town of Midnapoor, and even yet the establishment exists, but no law is taught. There are scarcely any Moguls; but one-seventh of the whole inhabitants are supposed to be Mahommedans.

Throughout this district there exists now a universal impression, (and it applies to much the greater proportion of the British territories,) that property is not liable to confiscation, or gross violation by supreme authority; which nothing but a very long experience of the admirably impartial distribution of justice in Bengal could ever influence a native to credit. It was formerly the custom to bury in the earth treasure and valuable goods, and to conceal the acquisition of wealth. This is still done; but generally from the dread of gang robbers; never from any apprehension that the officers of government will lay violent hands on private property.

The principal places in Midnapoor are the town of that name, Jellasore and Pipley; but the district contains no town of magnitude. It was acquired in 1761, by cession from Cossim Ali, the reigning Nabob of Bengal; and in 1770 was afflicted by one of the greatest famines recorded in history, which swept away nearly half of the people. Since that period, except in 1799, when a partial famine occurred, the number of inhabitants has been gradually increasing, and in 1801 was estimated at 1,500,000. In 1814, measures were adopted by the magistrate for the apprehension and dispersion of bands of choars, residing in the north-western quarter of the district, and of checking their horrid barbarities, the details of which will be found under the article Baugree. In the last six months of 1815, nine dacoities, or gang robberies, occurred within the limits of Midnapoor, but unattended with wounding; and the police was considered efficient, with the exception of the pergunnah above mentioned.—*(Sir Henry Strachey, J. H. Ernst, J. Grant, &c. &c.)*

MIDNAPOOR.—The capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 22° 25′ N. long. 87° 25′ E. 70 miles W. by S. from Calcutta. This place, being a frontier station, had formerly a fort, but it has recently been converted into a criminal prison. The civil jail and hospital are thatched buildings at a distance from the old fort. By the exertions of successive magistrates, the roads adjacent to this town have been brought into an excellent condition, being constructed of gravel and hard materials, and planted with avenues of trees. Considerable advances had also been made in forming a road from hence to Bissenpoor, which, when completed, will not only shorten the distance to travellers and merchants no less than thirty-three miles, but by penetrating the wild and jungly pergunnah of Baugree, expose to view the haunts of choars and other banditti, and greatly facilitate their apprehension. *(Wintle, Sir R. Strachey, &c.)*

JELLASORE *(Jaleswara)*.—This town stands on the east side of the Subunreeka (suvarna areka, with golden sands) river, which before the acquisition of Cuttack formed the southern boundary of the Bengal Presidency, towards the Nagpoor Maharattas, in the Orissa Province. Lat. 21° 50′ N. long. 87° 25′ E. 86 miles S. W. from Calcutta.

PIPLEY *(Pippali)*.—A town in the Midnapoor district, 28 miles E. N. E. from Balasore. Lat. 21° 42′ N. long. 87° 20′ E. About the middle of the 17th century this was a great resort of European trade, from whence the Dutch shipped annually 2,000 tons of salt. The first permission obtained by the English from the Mogul emperors to trade with Bengal was restricted to this place, now almost unknown. Since that period the floods having washed away a great part of the town and formed a dangerous bar in the river, the merchants removed to Balasore.

BAUGREE *(Baghari)*.—A wild and jungly pergunnah in the Midnapoor district, situated towards the north-east quarter. Although within 60 miles of Calcutta, up to A. D. 1816, owing to peculiar local obstacles, the authority of government had never been firmly established in this tract, nor had the peaceably disposed inhabitants ever enjoyed that protection, which had been so effectually extended to all other parts of the old provinces. In Baugree the leaders of the choars continued to act as if they had been independent of any government, and endeavoured to maintain their predominance by the most atrocious acts of rapine, and frequently the murder of individuals in revenge for having given evidence against them. Besides perpetrating rapine and murder in the prosecution of their ordinary vocation, these choars were generally extremely ready to become the instruments of private malice among the inhabitants, when the malignity of their hatred stimulated them to assassination, which they were too cowardly to perform with their own hands. Every attempt to establish an efficient police having failed, it became necessary to concentrate the powers usually vested in different local authorities in one functionary, under the immediate direction of the governor-general, which was accordingly done, and Mr. Oakley deputed to execute the arduous commission.

The first measure adopted by this gentleman was to ascertain the principal ringleaders of the banditti, in order that they might be specifically excluded from the general amnesty, to be offered to the great majority of the choars. The next was to deprive them of their accustomed supplies of food, to encourage a spirit of active co-operation among the inhabitants, and generally to diminish the terror which the cruelty of the choars had impressed on the neighbouring villagers and cultivators. The success of these measures was becoming daily more conspicuous, when it was unfortunately arrested by the

insurrection of the Pykes in the adjacent pergunnah of Bhanjeboom. The effect of this commotion, however, was only temporary, for by the middle of 1816, the gangs of plunderers had been dispersed, and crimes of enormity nearly suppressed, while the current revenue due to government was completely realized. In February, 1816, the choar banditti consisted of 19 leaders and about 200 accomplices. In the course of a few months all the chiefs, except two, were apprehended, or fell in resisting the attempts to apprehend them; their frequent and pertinacious resistance being partly ascribable to their long habits of ferocity, and partly to their expectation of capital punishment if taken alive.—*(Public MS. Documents, Oakley, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF BURDWAN *(Vardhaman, productive).*

This district is situated between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Birboom and Rajshahy; on the south by Midnapoor and Hooghly; and on the west by Midnapoor and Ramghur. In 1784, this district contained 5,174 square miles, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, but it has since undergone several modifications, which have greatly reduced its extent. Along with the other ceded lands it became subject to the British government in 1760, and has since thriven so prosperously, that in proportion to its dimensions, it may be reckoned the most productive territory in India. It is environed by the jungles of Midnapoor, of Pachete, and Birboom, and appears like a garden surrounded by a wilderness. The most valuable articles of produce are sugar, indigo, pawn, cotton, tobacco, and mulberry trees, all of which have progressively increased in quantity; and in 1801 it was calculated, that the general cultivation had extended one eighth, subsequent to the commencement of the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered perpetual; the uncultivated being to the cultivated in the proportion of one to eight. The revenue lands are of a better quality, and under superior tillage compared with those called rent-free, or exempted from the land tax; but the latter appear to be a very considerable proportion of the whole, being estimated at one-fourth. Many of the principal zemindars reside in Calcutta, and have their affairs managed by an agent. There are also a considerable number of merchants who deal in tobacco, salt, grain, and cloth, and commerce has been greatly facilitated by the opening of three grand roads to Hooghly, Culna, and Cutwa; Burdwan, although so opulent, not having the advantage of an inland navigation. Most of the principal bankers of Calcutta have factors established for the conducting of their money transactions; but the indigo works are entirely managed by Europeans.

The original zemindary or estate, known by the name of the Burdwan zemin-

dary, was roughly estimated at 73 miles long by 45 broad, comprehending about 3,280 square miles, nearly the whole of which was in a high state of cultivation, and well stocked with inhabitants. At some date subsequent to 1722, it was bestowed on Keerut Chund of the khetri or military tribe, the first progenitor of the present family, and in 1790, the existing Raja paid a yearly rent to government of £400,000. In 1784, the revenue of the whole district was 4,358,026 rupees, and in 1814 amounted to 4,323,663; but we are not informed if the fiscal limits continued the same, although we know that the judicial, betwixt these dates, underwent great alteration. At present there are no brick or mud forts in this district; but the remains of several are visible, originally constructed for protection against the predatory incursions of the Maharatta horse, during the native governments. There are few villages in Burdwan in which there is not a school where children are taught to read and write, but there are no regular schools for instruction in the Mahommedan or Hindoo law. The most learned professors of the latter are procured from the adjacent district of Nuddea, from whence and from Benares the other stations are chiefly supplied. The Mahommedans bear a considerable proportion to the mass of the inhabitants, and receive their education in the common branches from the village schoolmasters.

The chief persons of rank in this district are the Rajas of Burdwan and Bessunpoor. The former has no property of any magnitude, except his zemindary, now greatly curtailed, and scarcely yielding five per cent. profit on the land tax; the latter has nothing left but his title, the greater portion of his estate having been sold for arrears of revenue, and the rest continuing under attachment from the same cause. In 1802 it was supposed the zemindar's profit, generally, did not amount to ten per cent. on the amount of land tax paid to the sovereign, but circumstances of this nature are always carefully concealed from the collectors of the revenue, unless the loss be decidedly great, and then only made known with the view to an abatement in the sum levied. At present, from poverty, and other causes, the Rajas of Burdwan and Bissunpoor maintain few followers, and when they appear abroad for the purposes of state or ceremony, they hire a temporary retinue; but before the introduction of the permanent system, the number of persons called zemindary pikes, employed for police and other purposes, was above 21,000. Besides the above two, there are no other considerable zemindars; the peasantry are peculiarly opulent.

In 1814, Mr. Bayley, then judge and magistrate of Burdwan, endeavoured to ascertain with an approach to accuracy, the exact number of inhabitants within his jurisdiction. In prosecution of this undertaking, the proprietors of every village were furnished through the police officers of each division with a form in the Bengalese language, in which to insert the total number of dwelling houses in each village, and the proportion occupied respectively by Hindoos and Ma-

hommedans. These papers were accordingly circulated, and after being so prepared were attested by the proprietor or his agent, and also by some of the most respectable inhabitants of the village, nor did there on this occasion appear the least reluctance on the part of these individuals to communicate the information thus required. The result of these statements when collected and examined, tended to establish the following facts; that in 1814, the district of Burdwan contained 262,634 dwelling houses, of which 218,153 were occupied by Hindoos, and 43,781 by Mahommedans; and allowing 5½ persons to each house, that the total population of Burdwan amounted to 1,444,487 souls. In 1814, the area of Burdwan district as it then stood, comprehended 2,400 English square miles, giving an average of 600 persons to the square mile.

The total population of England gives an average of nearly 200 inhabitants to the square mile, but if some particular counties are selected the proportion will be found to approximate to that of Burdwan. The county of Lancaster, for instance, contains about 1800 square miles, and the population in 1811, amounted to 856,000 inhabitants, or 476 to the square mile.

The following statement contains an abstract classification of the whole number of Hindoo inhabitants in 26 villages of Burdwan, arranged under the heads of their respective castes or professions. The villages from the investigation of which this abstract was composed, were selected as containing more than the usual proportion of Hindoo inhabitants, and the table exhibits almost all the classes and professions, into which the Hindoo population is generally subdivided, in the western parts of Bengal. On inspection it will be observed that the proportion of females to males is generally larger in the higher classes, while in the lower the males are the most numerous.

CASTES.	Males, above 16 years.	Females, above 12 years.	Males, below 16 years.	Females, below 12 years.	TOTAL.
Brahmins	2,356	2,738	1,266	947	7,307
Khetries	10	10	5	2	27
Rajpoots	121	151	53	47	372
Vaidyas (physician caste)	42	42	26	14	124
Khayastas (scribes) pronounced kaysts	701	839	421	288	2,249
Gand banias (druggists)	500	581	260	191	1,532
Cansaries (braziers)	58	65	31	22	176
Sancaries (shell ornament makers)	16	16	12	6	50
Aguris (farmers)	981	1,113	538	359	2,991
Malacars (florists)	36	40	16	12	104
Napits (barbers)	221	243	131	115	710
Cumars (potters)	159	181	71	53	464

CASTES.	Males, above 16 years.	Females, above 12 years.	Males, below 16 years.	Females, below 12 years.	TOTAL.
Mairas (confectioners)	162	199	78	50	489
Tantis (weavers)	271	265	142	77	755
Carmacars (blacksmiths)	258	339	145	97	839
Barrooees (pawnsellers)	4	5	5	2	16
Tambulis (venders of betel leaf)	161	193	83	74	511
Sat-gopis (cultivators)	1,463	1,630	854	547	4,494
Gwalas (herdsmen)	632	680	333	221	1,875
Bayestomes and mohants (religious mendicants or priests)	3	7	1	3	14
Bhauts (bards, or encomiasts)	63	80	41	28	212
Panchias (a class of beggars)	4	6	3	1	14
Daibages (astrologers)	74	86	46	18	224
Kaiburtas (cultivators)	90	100	43	31	264
Sonarbanias (bankers, or money-changers)	120	137	62	38	357
Suvarnacars (goldsmiths)	132	143	62	53	390
Telliyas (oilmen)	427	512	224	136	1,299
Calus (oilmen)	276	322	145	134	877
Jellias (fishermen)	98	99	57	34	288
Chutars (carpenters)	135	147	64	43	389
Dhobahs (washermen)	77	86	41	24	228
Jugis (weavers)	36	36	15	12	99
Bayaties (mat-makers)	32	31	21	15	99
Saratis (carters)	22	27	12	14	75
Chunarias (lime-burners)	17	16	7	1	41
Lohars (Porters, labourers, cultivators, boatmen, sweepers, watchmen, palanqueen bearers, fishermen, &c. &c. &c.)	16	20	3	4	43
Bawuris	262	306	248	175	991
Cotals	435	476	216	142	1,269
Haris	203	215	118	77	613
Bagdis	1,205	1,384	858	641	4,088
Duleas	90	113	50	36	289
Malls (snake catchers)	6	6	7	3	22
Chandals (as Cotal)	53	53	18	22	145
Domes (basket-makers)	285	321	254	174	1,034
Suris (distillers)	286	305	111	63	765
Muchis (curriers)	158	165	97	104	524
Total	12,922	14,726	7,382	5,208	40,238

That this district continues in a progressive state of improvement is evident from the number of new villages erected, and the increasing number of brick buildings, both for religious and domestic purposes, nor is there any other portion of territory in Hindostan that can compare with it for productive agricultural value in proportion to its size. In this respect Burdwan may claim the first rank; the second may be assigned to the province of Tanjore in the southern Carnatic.—*(W. B. Bayley, J. Grant, J. Parker, Colebrooke, Lord Cornwallis, &c.)*

BURDWAN.—This town stands about 60 miles N.N.W. from Calcutta, and originally communicated its name to the district; lat. 23° 15′ N. long. 87° 57′ E. In 1814, when its circumstances were investigated by Mr. Bayley, 7,651 houses were found inhabited by Hindoos, and 2,154 by Mahommedans; total 9,805: which, at the rate of 5½ persons to each dwelling, gives a population of 53,927 inhabitants. *(W. B. Bayley, &c.)*

BISSUNPOOR *(Vishnupura)*.—This ancient town is situated 77 miles N. W. from Calcutta, in lat. 23° 4′ N. long. 87° 25′ E. Formerly there was a large zemindary attached to it, which in 1784, according to Major Rennell, contained 1,256 square miles, yielding a revenue of 386,707 current rupees to the government, besides the zemindar's profit, but to the latter little now remains except the name, nearly all having been sold or attached for unliquidated arrears. Notwithstanding its present low estate, it claims great antiquity, for it appears by an era peculiar to itself, that it must have been in the possession of the present proprietor's family through a course of 1,099 years; during which time they were nearly independent, paying only a small tribute to the sovereign until 1715, during the administration of Jaffier Khan, when the territory was completely reduced to subjection. The zemindars are of a Rajpoot family, and possess a list of 56 Rajas who governed the country in regular succession.—*(J. Grant, Davis, &c.)*

CUTWA *(Kangtoya)*.—This town stands 75 miles N. N. W. from Calcutta in lat. 23° 37′ N. long. 88° 10′ E. and is noted for a smart action that was fought here, in 1763, with the troops of Cossim Ali. It is also famous throughout these provinces for the manufacture of brass vessels. The composition termed dosta seems to be a kind of pewter or alloy containing a great deal of zinc.

CULNA *(Khalana)*.—This place is situated on the west side of the Hooghly river, about 47 miles N. by W. from Calcutta, 23° 13′ long. 88° 21′ E.

OKIRAH.—A town in the Burdwan district, 105 miles N. W. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 38′ N. long. 87° 15′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF BIRBOOM *(Virabhumi, the land of heroes)*.

This district is situated in the north western extremity of the Bengal province, and about the 24th degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the

district of Boglipoor, to the south by Burdwan and Pachete; to the east it has Rajshahy, and to the west Boglipoor and Pachete. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is named Sircar Madarun. In 1784, the superficial extent comprehended 3,858 square miles, a considerable portion of which is hilly, jungly, and but thinly inhabited. In 1801, the collector estimated the proportion of uncultivated land to the cultivated at one begah in eight, but this appears by far too small a proportion, if the hilly and jungly surface be considered, and the backward state of agriculture. Coal is found in this district, but not of a good quality. The iron ore, procured here by the natives, is very rich in the metal, and is not found in veins, but dug from the earth where it remains in strata mixed with clay. The zemindars carried on the smelting processes after a native method, and opposed all European interlopers, until 1814, when an iron foundery for the smelting of Birboom and Rajshahy iron was established by Mr. Andrew Duncan, at the confluence of the Moa and Hooghly rivers, under the patronage of the Bengal government. The result, however, of the calculations regarding the rates at which iron could be furnished from Europe and from the foundery, was not favourable to the latter, although ably arranged, and frugally conducted, and the ore remarkably rich; government in consequence, after incurring considerable expense, determined to abandon the project.

The most valuable articles produced in Birboom are rice and sugar, and cultivation has on the whole perceptibly increased since the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered permanent, and it is certain that the zemindar's profit exceeds the minimum then computed, of 10 per cent. on the jumma, or a land tax paid to government; but notwithstanding this, the ancient and once opulent zemindary of Birboom is gone to decay, and the representative of the old family is reduced to poverty, which has extinguished a ready market for many articles of traffic formerly in demand. To this decline may also be attributed the ruinous state of buildings and of religious edifices. At present there are no brick or mud forts within the limits of the district, but the ruins of many are still visible throughout the country. The rent-free and revenue lands were considered by the collector in 1801 as equally well cultivated. The purchasers of estates at public sales were then mostly persons who had been in the service of the Raja of Birboom and other zemindars; but recently have been mostly merchants and the monied men of Calcutta. The cultivation and population of Birboom may on the whole be considered as gradually increasing, but the want of an inland navigation proves a great impediment to the extension of commerce; this district having fewer navigable streams than any other portion of the province. On this account the roads and bridges are more attended to; the latter are constructed of palmyra trees, and both in the vicinity of Soory, the capital, kept in order by the government convicts. The number of iron forges in Bir-

boom, and the adjacent district of Boglipoor, together with the supply of Moorshedabad and the adjacent towns, renders the demand for fuel more considerable than usual in Bengal; but the extent of forest throughout the province is immense, and in Birboom there are very large forests lying close to the forges which occasion the greatest consumption.

When first acquired by the British, Birboom was the largest Mahommedan zemindary in the province, and was originally conferred on Assud Ullah, the father of Budder ul Zemaun of the Afghan or Patan tribe, who was allowed to settle here about the time of Shere Shah, for the political purpose of guarding the frontiers of the west against the incursions of the barbarous Hindoos of Jeharcund. A warlike Mahommedan militia were entertained as a standing army, with suitable territorial allotments under a principal landholder of the same faith. In some respects it corresponded with the ancient military fiefs of Europe, certain lands being exempted from rent, and appropriated solely to the maintenance of troops. This privilege was resumed by Cossim Ali in 1763, and under existing circumstances, is become still more unnecessary. Some portions of this district bordering on the hills are covered with jungle, which afforded an asylum to dacoits; but in 1814 a settlement was concluded with the ghautwalls (petty hill chiefs) which promised to secure the assistance of this class towards the suppression of robberies, and also for the discharge of other duties confided to them.

In 1814, it was reported by the police superintendant, that gang robbery or dacoity had experienced a small decrease, nor were such as had been recently perpetrated attended with any aggravating circumstances. Highway robberies, however, had become more frequent, and had chiefly been committed in the vicinity of Deoghur or Baidyanath, on Hindoo pilgrims and travellers journeying through the jungles to that sanctuary, where there is a temple of Siva, of such repute, that it is calculated from the Bahar district alone 6000 persons repair to it annually. The wild and woody nature of this part of Birboom, and the constant passing and repassing of pilgrims to Baidyanath, hold forth superior temptation to robbers; and it is probable that many robberies attended with murder are perpetrated on the persons of these devotees, the knowledge of which never reaches the officers of police. In 1814, various measures were carried into execution with a view to the security of these pilgrims, not only through Birboom, but likewise through the districts of Ramghur and Boglipoor. The head quarters of the judicial establishment are at Soory, which is the residence of the magistrate, and where the jail has been constructed of such combustible materials, as to endanger the lives of the prisoners. Such, however, is the intense heat of this climate, that it does not appear advisable to confine the convicts in a jail of brick and mortar, the warmth of which would at certain seasons be utterly

insupportable. In 1801, the total population of the district was estimated at 700,000, in the proportion of 30 Hindoos to one Mahommedan. In 1814, one of the cases of murder tried here was committed by a villager, who deliberately beat out the brains of an old fakeer, excusing himself on the ground that the man was a sorcerer who occasioned considerable uneasiness in the neighbourhood.—*(J. Grant, Police Reports, Colebrooke, D. Campbell, Cowell, &c. &c. &c.)*

SOORY.—The present capital of the Birboom district, stands in lat. 23° 54′ long. 87° 32′ E. about 50 miles S.W. from Moorshedabad.

SURROOL.—This place is situated about 53 miles S. W. by S. from Moorshedabad, and was formerly a place of some commercial importance. Lat. 23° 39′ N. long. 87° 42′ E.

NAGORE.—This place is mentioned so early as A. D. 1244, as a Mahommedan fortress, and the capital of Birboom. It stands about 63 miles W. S. W. from Moorshedabad, and has a hot well at Becassore, a short distance to the south. Lat. 23° 56′ N. long. 87° 20′ E.

BAIDYANATH *(or Deoghur)*.—A celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, which is said to have been built by Raja Praun Mull, of Ghiddore; lat. 24° 32′ N. long. 86° 40′ E. 110 miles W. by N. from Moorshedabad. The temple here is famous for a lingam it contains, respecting which a strange story is told in the Puranas, which also make mention of a river; but at present there is no stream whatever, although there are several sacred pools. Pilgrims resorting to this place, usually bring with them water from the other sacred fanes they have already visited, and pour it over the lingam, round which they walk a certain number of times, while others lie down and continue fasting until they have a favourable dream. Prayers of various sorts are addressed to the deity of the place. Some pray to be kings in the next transmigration, or for such worldly enjoyments as they prefer: others pray for happiness in the heaven of the deity they address; while some, tired and harassed by the miseries of successive births, pray to be released from existence altogether.—*(Ward, &c. &c.)*

LACARACOONDA *(Lakerikhanda)*.—A small town in the Birboom district, 116 miles N. E. from Calcutta, lat. 23° 18′ N. long. 87° 15′ E.

SARHAUT *(Sri hat, an affluent mart)*.—A small town in the Birboom district, 85 miles W. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 86° 51′ E.

SERAMPOOR *(Sriramapura.)*—A town in the Birboom district, 107 miles W. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 6′ N. long. 86° 24′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF MOORSHEDABAD.

The Moorshedabad district comprises a portion of territory in the immediate vicinity of that city, and is described by the superintendant of police in 1814,

as larger than that of Hooghly, and equal in extent to Burdwan, which Mr. Bayley states to contain 2400 square miles. The jurisdiction of the magistrate then comprehended 18 tannahs, or police stations, and 4 chokeys; and the court of the magistrate was held at Calcapoor, seven miles distant from the city. This district, like several other of the Bengal judicial subdivisions, has undergone such frequent modifications, that it is difficult to assign it any precise limits. The Jellinghy river, by which it is intersected, is one of the most westerly branches of the Ganges, from the main stream of which it separates at the town of Jellinghy, and after an uncommonly winding course joins the Bhagirathi, or Cossimbazar river, at Nuddea; their united streams forming the Hooghly, or Calcutta river. Although a stream runs in the Jellinghy the whole year, it is some years unnavigable during two or three of the driest months.

According to the Reports of the Government functionaries in 1801, the cultivation of the lands had considerably increased, subsequent to the first year of the decennial settlement; since which era a great extent of jungle had been brought under tillage; the cultivated land being computed at four-fifths of the whole. The most valuable products are silk and indigo; but the works erected by Europeans for the manufacture of the latter, are viewed by the zimindars with great jealousy, (although manifestly tending to increase the produce of their lands,) on account of the protection which the factories afford to the under tenants against the exactions of their landlords. At that date there was said to be only one school in the district for instruction in the Mahommedan law, the expense of which was defrayed by the heirs of Mahommed Zakir; while there were 20 schools for instruction in the Hindoo laws and customs. The jumma, or land revenue, of this district in 1814 amounted to 1,874,588 rupees, and the abkarry to 97,000 rupees.

In 1801, the population of this district, including the city, was estimated at 1,020,572 persons, in the proportion of two Hindoos to one Mahommedan; but it is to be apprehended, that owing to the mortality that has prevailed within the precincts of this city, the number of inhabitants has rather been on the decline. The neighbourhood of Moorshedabad is the chief seat of the manufacture of wove silk: taffeta, both plain and flowered, and many other sorts, for inland commerce and exportation, are made more abundantly than at any other place where silk is woven. The appearance of the surrounding district exhibits a progressive improvement in cultivation, but no traces of increased commerce, nor improvement in buildings for religious or domestic purposes, individuals occasionally build a temple or dig a tank for public use; but similar endowments of former days are going to decay, and among the natives no degree of opulence ever tempts them to improvements in their domestic habits or comforts.

Gang robbery, or dacoity, is the most prevalent crime in this part of Bengal, but offences of less serious magnitude are also extremely common, owing to a crowded population, and various local circumstances. In 1813, the city police was reckoned inferior to that of any other of the Bengal cities, and heinous crimes prevailed within its limits to a lamentable extent; the great dimensions and importance of the district rendering it impossible for one magistrate to conduct the business both of the city and district. Another obstacle to improvement arose from the aversion felt by the native police officers to interfere, where the alleged dependants of the nabob were implicated. The straggling and ruinous state of the city, interspersed with large patches of jungle, and separated by the Bhagirathi river, operated also as impediments to the efficient execution of the police regulations. On consideration of these circumstances, the Bengal government judged it expedient to appoint an assistant magistrate, to reside within the precincts of the city, for its peculiar superintendance.

Very few of the lower orders in this district keep any other weapons in their houses than long thick Bamboo bludgeons; but particular classes keep spears for the declared purpose of destroying wild hogs; and some of the head villagers and village watchmen have swords. Sometimes the latter use a long tapering solid bamboo, pointed at one end and hardened in the fire; but they seldom use swords, and almost never fire-arms. The middle and higher classes keep swords and daggers as appendages of dress. Until about the year 1793, the district was, by the natives, considered as rather salubrious; but now a sad reverse has taken place, and whether owing to a redundant population, or some more inscrutable cause, almost every year this part of the province is visited by a severe epidemic. —*(J. Shakespear, Hayes, 5th Report, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

CITY OF MOORSHEDABAD.

This city stands on the most sacred branch of the Ganges, named the Bhagirathi or Cossimbazar river, about 120 miles above Calcutta, lat. 24° 11′ N. long. 88° 15′ E. It was originally named Mucksoosabad; but in 1704, when Moorshed Cooly Khan transferred the seat of government to this place, he changed its name to Moorshedabad. The town extends eight miles along both sides of the river, and was never fortified except by an occasional rampart in 1742, during the Maharatta invasion. The buildings are in general bad, and the palace of the nabobs so insignificant as to be passed without observation. The streets are narrow and inconvenient, and almost impassable for European wheel carriages.

The original plan of the chowk, or market place, appears to have been well contrived, but the inhabitants having been permitted to encroach on the public

road, the purposes for which it was originally intended have been defeated. From the market place, there runs a long narrow winding street, composed of mean houses and huts, which is again intersected by others still more narrow and miserable. The sewers of these streets, originally intended to carry off the surplus water, have long been completely destroyed, and it consequently happens, that after a heavy fall of rain they are nearly impassable, and remain so during the greater part of the rainy season, emitting a putrid effluvia. Another cause of this city's unhealthiness, is a total want of a free circulation of air, owing to the confused form of the town, also to the thick, impenetrable, and yearly increasing jungle, which is intermixed with the dwelling houses, and which threatens to absorb the whole. If it be not intended that this city, like many other eastern capitals, shall die a natural death, the jungle ought to be extirpated, the streets widened, and the ponds of stagnant mud be filled up; but to effect these objects the prompt assistance of government must be obtained, as the mere labour of the convicts will prove inadequate to the task.

Moorshedabad is a place of great inland traffic, and the river is seen constantly covered with boats, which are examined at the custom house established here. From October to May the Bhagirathi is almost dry, when much of the traffic is conducted at Bogwangola, a port on the Great Ganges, about nine miles from Moorshedabad. In 1813, a canal was dug between the Bhagirathi and Great Ganges rivers, which independent of the commercial benefits thence derived, tended to ameliorate the unhealthiness of the town and adjacent villages, by maintaining a permanent stream of wholesome water, and by attracting a current of fresh air towards the city to clear away the noxious exhalations from its atmosphere. Notwithstanding these exertions, in 1814 disease was peculiarly virulent, and involved the European portion of the society, which suffered severely, and the general mortality was described by the magistrate as hardly credible, although he admitted that the operation of the new cut had to a certain degree improved the salubrity of the town. The origin of this evil had been ascribed to the stagnation of the waters of the Bhagirathi, during a great portion of the year; but the circumstances which combine to render Moorshedabad unhealthy are various, and difficult to remedy, and the population continues for obvious reasons to decline. In consequence of this, the houses formerly occupied by numbers of the lower classes of inhabitants have been suffered to go to ruin, from which results an increase of stagnant water, vegetable putrefaction, and other symptoms, which in India always mark the decay of populous towns.

The Mooty Jeel, or pearl lake, in this neighbourhood, is one of the windings

of a former channel of the Cossimbazar river. During the reign of Aliverdi Khan, a palace was erected in it, and ornamented with pillars of black marble brought from the ruins of Gour, the ancient capital of Bengal. A very heavy expense is annually incurred by government on account of the Boolabeg Pooshta, or projecting embankment into the river, on the stability of which a principal portion of the town depends for security against an overwhelming inundation. In 1814, the third judge of the court of circuit reported to government, that the immediate police jurisdiction contained 15 tannahs, comprehending 277 mohullahs or subordinate stations, and 887 watchmen; the whole requiring an expense of 3,000 rupees per month. This amount he computed could not be furnished by fewer than 30,000 houses, taxed monthly nearly two annas each, which, at the rate of five individuals per house, would give 150,000 inhabitants; but from a comparison with other parts of Bengal, 5½ persons may with safety be allowed, which would increase the number to 165,000 souls. In 1812, the estimated value of property stolen in Moorshedabad was 41,090 rupees, and during 1813 it amounted to 38,020 rupees, of which in the year last mentioned only 428 rupees worth were recovered by the exertions of the police establishment.

Moorshedabad became the capital of Bengal in 1704, when the seat of government was removed from Dacca by the nabob Jaffier Khan, (or Moorshed Cooly Khan) and it continued to be the metropolis until the conquest of Bengal by the British in 1757, when it was virtually, although not nominally, superseded by Calcutta. Until 1771, it continued the head station of the collector general and of the board of revenue, being more central than Calcutta, but in that year they were both transferred to the latter place.

The nabob Jaffier Khan, who first made this city his capital, was born of a Brahmin, bought while an infant, and educated in Persia in the Mahommedan faith. He was appointed soubahdar of Bengal by Aurengzebe, and on his death, with the assistance of Juggeth Seth, the banker, he purchased the continuance of his office; besides which he discomfited two other soubahdars sent by the court of Delhi to expel him, although he remitted the annual tribute with great regularity. He died A. D. 1725, and was succeeded by his son in law,

Shujah ud Dowlah, who reigned until 1739, and on his decease his son,

Serferauz Khan, ascended the throne; but was dethroned and killed, after a short reign of one year and two months, by

Aliverdi Khan, who, after an active and eventful reign, died in 1756, and was succeeded by his grandson,

Seraje ud Dowlah. Two months after his accession, this prince attacked and

took Calcutta; but in the succeeding year was defeated at Plassey by Colonel Clive, and soon after assassinated, in 1757, by Meer Meeraun, the son of his successor,

Meer Jaffier Khan, who, on account of his incapacity, was dethroned by the British in 1760, and

Meer Cossim Ali Khan raised to the throne. In 1763, this nabob was expelled by the British, and his predecessor, Meer Jaffier Khan reinstated. After reigning one year, in 1764, he was succeeded by his oldest existing son,

Nudjam ud Dowlah, who, in 1766, died of the small pox, and was succeeded by his brother,

Seif ud Dowlah, who died in 1769, in which year a famine and epidemical distemper raged with great violence.

Mubaric ud Dowlah, whose allowances were at first 24 lacks of rupees per annum, but subsequently, in 1772, reduced to 16 lacks. This prince died in 1796, and was succeeded by his son,

Nazim ul Muluck, who died on the 28th of April, 1810, and was succeeded by his eldest son,

Seid Zin ud Deen Ali Khan, then 17 years of age.

Besides being the residence of the native prince, Moorshedabad is the head quarters of a court circuit, having the following subordinate districts, viz. 1. Boglipoor; 2. Purneah; 3. Dinagepoor; 4. Rungpoor; 5. Raujeshy; 6. Birboom; and 7. the city and district of Moorshedabad.—*(Scott, Lord Valentia, Lock, Public MS. Documents, J. Shakespear, Rennell, Stewart, Leycester, &c. &c.)*

BERNAGHUR *(Virnagara)*.—A small town in the Moorshedabad district, five miles north from the city. Lat. 24° 16′ N. long. 88° 13′ E.

BOGWANGOLA *(Bhagavan Gola)*.—A large inland town in the province of Bengal, district of Moorshedabad, eight miles N. E. from the city of Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 21′ N. long. 88° 29′ E. This is a very busy emporium for the inland navigation, having sufficient water at all seasons, and from hence the capital of the district is chiefly supplied with grain. The town, which is entirely built of bamboos, mats, and thatch, has been removed more than once, on account of the encroachments of the Ganges, and exhibits more the appearance of a temporary fair or encampment, than of a solid commercial mart carrying on a most extensive inland traffic.—*(Colonel Colebrooke, &c.)*

JUNGEYPOOR *(Jangalpura)*.—A town in the Moorshedabad district, 17 miles north by west from the city. Lat. 24° 28′ N. long. 88° 13′ E. This is the greatest silk station in the possession of the East India Company; the others being Cossimbazar, Malda, Bauleah, Comercolly, Radanagore, and Rungpoor. The first attempt made to establish a silk manufactory was at Budgebudge, below

Calcutta, and did not succeed. The buildings here were erected in 1773, and in 1803, about 3,000 persons were employed. They use the Italian method of spinning, which was introduced so early as 1762, by some natives of Italy sent over for that purpose by the Company. The worms are bred by women and children, and the cocoons purchased on government account.

The mulberry tree is the oriental. It is dwarfish and the leaves but indifferent, to which is attributed a degeneracy in the breeds that have been introduced from foreign countries. The Chinese mulberry was tried, but it did not succeed from the dryness of the soil. The quantity produced is capable of being augmented to any amount. In 1802, the investment stood the Company in $5\frac{1}{8}$ rupees per pound. There are many other places where the natives rear the silk worm, and have adopted the Italian method of spinning, but the Company do not purchase this silk. The employment is said to have no deleterious effect, and is certainly very advantageous, as very young children are capable of assisting.—*(Lord Valentia, &c.)*

Cossimbazar.—This town stands about a mile south from Moorshedabad, of which capital it may be reckoned the port. Lat. 24° 10′ N. long. 88° 15′ E.

This is one of the largest inland trading towns in Bengal, and during the rainy season has a variety and extent of water carriage, probably not excelled in the world. The Cossimbazar island is perfectly flat, and one bed of sand, but the annual overflow of the river leaves a deposit of mud which gives richness to this otherwise barren territory. Besides the tiger and the boar, this insular space abounds with the inferior species of game. The hare, deer, partridges, quail, and a species of the ortolan, with a great diversity of birds, far superior in splendour of plumage to those of Europe, are found along this sacred branch of the Ganges, and the aquatic birds of colder climates, such as geese, ducks, divers, and snipes, are also abundant. The town of Cossimbazar has long been famous for its silk manufactures, and is noted for its stockings, which are all wire knitted, and esteemed the best in Bengal. The price is from 20 to 35 rupees per score of pairs. The quantity of silk consumed here annually by the natives in carpets, satins, and other stuffs, is very great; and a large quantity is besides exported to Europe and to almost every quarter of India.

The Cossimbazar river is named the Bhagirathi, and is the holiest branch of the Ganges, the others, in Hindoo estimation, not possessing the same sanctity. In the ancient Hindoo systems, the west of the Bhagirathi was named the Utter-rari and Dackshin-rari; and the east of the same river named Bhagne.—*(Colebrooke, Lord Valentia, Tennant, &c.)*

Berhampoor *(Barhanpoor)*.—This town stands on the east bank of the Bhagirathi, or Cossimbazar river, about 6 miles south from Moorshedabad.

Lat. 24° 4′ N. long. 89° 14′ E. Here a brigade of European and native troops are stationed in commodious cantonments, which consist of a fine range of buildings on one side of a large open town, around which are the houses of different European gentlemen.—*(Lord Valentia, &c.)*

Sooty.—This town is situated in lat. 24° 26′ N. long. 88° 2′ E. about 30 miles N.N. W. from the city of Moorshedabad. In 1757, when Seraje ud Dowlah apprehended an attack from the English, believing that their ships of war could proceed up the eastern branch of the Ganges, to the northern point of the Cossimbazar island, and from thence down the Bhagirathi to Moorshedabad, he commanded immense piles to be driven into the river at Sooty, by which it has been rendered unnavigable for any construction of vessel larger than boats, and even for these during a part only of the year. In 1763, an action was fought here between the British troops and those of Meer Cossim, in which the latter were defeated.—*(Stewart, Seid Gholaum Hossein, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF CHITTAGONG *(Chaturgrama).*

This district is situated at the south eastern extremity of the Bengal province, between the 21st and 23d degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Tiperah district; on the south by Aracan; to the east it has the Birman empire; and on the west the sea. In length it may be estimated at 120 miles, by 25 the average breadth. In 1784, this district was estimated to contain about 2,987 square miles, of unproductive hilly, and plain arable lands in the proportion of two to one, and was originally subdivided into four moderately large, and 140 very small pergunnahs, partitioned among 1,400 landholders. This distribution originated in consequence of the whole district having formerly been assigned for the militia, or garrison troops, constantly maintained here for protection against the incursions of the Mughs or Aracaners. These, in process of time, became distinct zemindaries, when the military establishment ceased to be necessary. The islands of Hattia, Sundeep, and Bameeny, although separated from Chittagong by large arms of the sea, frequently impassable during stormy weather, are subordinate to the jurisdiction of its magistrate.

The Chittagong river has been surveyed, but has not been found sufficiently deep for ships of any considerable size: and although there are a great many openings on the coast between that and the great Aracan river; yet after a tolerably strict survey, it has been found that their mouths are all choaked up with sand banks, so as only to admit ships of very small burthen over the bar. One opening, about 40 miles to the south of Chittagong, leads into a commodious harbour behind the island of Kutubdea, which both Mr. Plaisted and Mr.

Ritchie, marine surveyors to the Company, have described, and from whose reports it would appear, that there is water enough for a ship of any size. But the mouth of this opening is so surrounded with sand banks and shoals for a considerable way out to sea, and the whole of this upper part of the Bay of Bengal is so full of unascertained dangers, that it is probable this harbour would never become of any practicable utility for ships of large burthen.

In 1814 it was ascertained, that the southern portion of Chittagong towards the Nauf, was not so mountainous or impervious a territory, as had been reported. Between the different ranges of hills there are many plains and vallies susceptible of great improvement, of which description are the plains of Chuckareah, Ramoo, and Gurganeah, the last being estimated at 10 miles each way, with the river Bhaug Cali winding through it. Until recently, the cultivators of this portion of Chittagong were all Bengalese Hindoos, but after the conquest of Aracan by the Birmans, an immense emigration of Mughs took place into the British territories, some few of whom adopted agricultural pursuits, but the majority became petty traders in wood, gurjun, oil, cotton cloths, cotton, bamboo mats and similar commodities, while others settled as mechanics, canoe builders, cutters of wood for ship planks, and crooked timber. In this tract the soil is so fertile, that very little labour ensures redundant crops, and the cultivation might be greatly augmented if the state of the country were less agitated. In 1814, the Mugh population within 12 miles of Ramoo was estimated by an officer on the spot at 100,000, which however appears too great an accumulation, but it was ascertained by actual enumeration, that Coxe's bazar contained 800 Mugh huts, all inhabited by that race, who were very submissive to their expatriated chiefs and priests residing among them.

Remote from the sea coast, the interior of Chittagong has a hilly surface, at present much covered with jungle, but which there is reason to suppose adapted for the cultivation of coffee, pepper, and the valuable spices of the east, and owing to its mountainous and maritime nature, the district, generally, is exposed to several disadvantages incidental to its situation. The proprietors whose estates lie along the shores of the sea are compelled to guard them from the invasions of that element, while those of the interior, being subject to inundation from the mountain torrents which rush down the hills, are obliged to observe similar precautions, and in reality the industry and exertions of the inhabitants to preserve their lands is deserving of commendation. At the time of the decennial revenue settlement, the waste lands, or at least the chief part of them, were excluded from that arrangement by circumstances peculiar to the district. The question whether they are entirely at the disposal of government, or belong as soon as cleared to the Ghosaul family, under a pretended grant, is

still depending in the courts of justice; but at all events, whatever be the result of that investigation, the lands when cleared become liable for the public revenue. Landed property in Chittagong is for the most part distributed into very small portions, among numerous proprietors which occasions everlasting disputes respecting boundaries. In 1801, the jumma of lands paying revenue to government was 539,467 rupees, and the average produce of the rent-free lands was estimated at 445,420 rupees; but the estates subject to the land-tax were considered in a better state of cultivation than those exempted from that burthen. The zemindar's profit was computed at from 16 to 20 per cent. on the amount of his jumma, or revenue assessment, and the district generally was in a progressive state of improvement, numerous settlers having arrived, both from the Dacca province, and the Birman territories. Exclusive of the Mugh settlers, the total number of inhabitants was then estimated at 1,200,000, in the proportion of 3 Mahommedans to 2 Hindoos; neither sect had any schools or seminaries for instruction in their respective tenets: and it is remarkable that, although so long possessed by the adherents of Buddha, in modern times scarcely one native Buddhist of hereditary growth is to be found.

This district possesses the advantage of having an accessible sea port, its capital, Islamabad, being extremely well situated for external commerce, as well as for the construction of ships of large dimensions, and of these a considerable number are built annually, both of imported timber, and of that indigenous to the country. The exports consist chiefly of timber, planks, canvass, coarse cloths, stockings, cotton, and umbrellas; and on the sea coast the government have a large establishment for the manufacture of salt. A considerable profit accrues to government from the elephants caught in the forests here, which are of an excellent quality, and particularly suited for the camp and chace. The best are received from the contractor under certain conditions, and agreeably to a fixed standard of height and other qualities; the remainder he sells on his own account, and are dispersed all over Hindostan. This maritime tract is much resorted to by the European inhabitants of Bengal, on account of the beneficial effects experienced from the sea air, and the salt water bathing. About 20 miles to the north of Islamabad there is a remarkable hot well, named Seeta-coond, the gaseous exhalations on the surface of which may be inflamed by the application of fire; and like all other unusual natural phenomena is held sacred by the Hindoos. The river Nauf, which forms the extreme southern boundary of the Bengal Presidency in this quarter, is above 70 miles to the south of Islamabad, the seat of the provincial government, and residence of the British magistrate. It is not navigable, as it becomes very shallow a few miles above Teaknauf, a village situated at its junction with the sea. The banks of this

river continue for the most part covered with jungle, interspersed with scanty spots of cultivation, and a few wretched villages, where dwell the poorer classes of herdsmen, and families of roving hunters who catch, tame, and occasionally eat wild elephants, the original inhabitants of these forests. The incessant alarm and destruction caused by its frontier situation, and the vicinity of the Mughs and Birmans, have retained these classes in a half savage state; but they, as well as the hill people named Choomeas, would acquire settled and industrious habits, if they were protected from external violence, and allowed to possess undisturbed any moderate portion of the soil.

Chittagong, it is probable, originally belonged to the extensive, independent, and barbarous kingdom of Tiperah; but being a frontier province where the two religions of Brahma and Buddha came in contact, it was sometimes governed by sectaries of the one doctrine, and sometimes by those of the other. There is reason to believe it was taken from both, about the beginning of the 16th century, by the Afghan kings of Bengal, and afterwards, during the wars between the Moguls and Afghans, reverted to the Buddhists of Aracan: it was first visited by the Portugueze so early as 1618, who were influenced by the then Raja of Aracan to settle in great numbers, and from thence, in conjunction with the Mughs or Aracaners, infested and desolated the south eastern quarter of Bengal, which, distant as the period is, has not yet recovered its inhabitants or cultivation.

In 1638, during the reign of the emperor Shah Jehan, Makat Ray, one of the Mugh chiefs, who held Chittagong subordinate to the Aracan Raja, having incurred his displeasure, and apprehending an attack, sought the Mogul sovereign's protection. This is the earliest account of the superiority of this territory having been acquired by the Mogul, nor was it taken possession of until 1666; yet long before this date, in 1582, it was regularly enumerated by Abul Fazel, as a component part of the Mogul dominions. In 1666, Shaista Khan, the Soubahdar of Bengal, having equipped a powerful fleet at Dacca, dispatched it down the Megna river under the command of Omeid Khan, who, having previously conquered the island of Sundeep, proceeded against this country, and laid siege to the capital. Although strongly fortified, and containing, according to the Mogul historians, 1223 cannon of different calibres, it made but a feeble resistance; and on its surrender, a new name (Islamabad) being imposed, it was with the district permanently annexed to the Mogul empire.

At a very early period this province attracted the notice of the English East India Company, who, in 1686, proposed to remove their factory from Hooghly to Chittagong, and there establish by force a respectable fortified residence. On the 17th of December, 1689, during a rupture with the emperor Aurengzebe,

an English fleet appeared off Chittagong, with the intention of effecting its conquest; but owing to indecision, nothing was done, nor would the result have answered the Company's expectations, had the original purpose been accomplished. In A. D. 1760, it was finally ceded to the East India Company, by the nabob Jaffier Ali Khan.

In 1795, his Birman Majesty, learning that three of his rebellious subjects and their adherents, or robbers, as he called them, had taken refuge in Chittagong, without any previous communication, marched a body of 5000 troops into the province in pursuit of them; but their progress was soon arrested by a detachment from the Bengal army, and after a protracted negociation, they were induced amicably to withdraw within their own boundaries. From this period commenced an incessant migration of Mughs from Aracan into this district, which was also selected as an asylum by all the adjacent insurgent chiefs from the Birman dominions, especially a leader named King-berring, whose adherents were estimated at 3000 men. In April, 1814, a party of 500 Birman troops pursued this chief into Chittagong, and among other exploits murdered two unoffending Mughs, engaged in the occupations of husbandry. They afterwards proceeded to Gurguneah, where, in less than twenty-four hours, they erected a double stockade, above 120 yards square, filled in the interior with crows feet and sharpened stakes. Within the second stockade they dug a trench, bordered by a parapet 1½ feet thick, and nearly high enough for protection against musquetry. One additional day's work would have rendered the stockade a most formidable military position; but on the approach of 125 of the Company's troops under Captain Fogo, they lost heart and retreated.

The situation of these fugitive Mughs, thus persecuted, was in many respects very deplorable. They had fled from Aracan, to escape the unrelenting and undistinguishing fury of the Birmans, into the hills and jungles of Chittagong, where they erected temporary huts and endeavoured to prolong their miserable existence. Here they were assailed by the rebel King-berring (who died in 1815) and compelled to join his party or fly. Those who fled were urged by the pangs of hunger to seize the victuals of the British cultivators, and were in consequence attacked by the troops posted there for the protection of the latter. With a view towards the amelioration of their condition, the British government endeavoured to settle them on the lands of a hill chief in the back parts of Chittagong, but great difficulties attended the arrangement, and its success is unknown. These refugee Mughs, from a national hatred to the Birmans, still continued clandestinely to join the insurgents, and thereby justified the Ava government in asserting, that the British functionaries had organized a den of rebels for the molestation of the Birman territories; yet it was wholly beyond the power

of the former to eradicate the insurgents, so long as they remained secluded in the remote and insalubrious hills and jungles, seven days journey from the sea shore; where, after repeated defeats they were always sure to find an asylum. Compared with these Mughs, the Bengalese natives of this district are small, weak-bodied men; the Aracaners being strong, muscular, and inured to hardships and active pursuits. The Bengalese also being unarmed and naturally averse to war, made no resistance to the Mugh marauders, who were, however, easily put to flight by a few regular sepoys under native officers.

In 1813, 21 persons were murdered, and 32 wounded, and the computed value of the property plundered 5,229 rupees. The gangs concerned in the commission of these atrocities amounted in some instances to between 4 and 500 men, and most of the crimes occurred in the parts of the district adjacent to the hills and wilds where the intrusive Mughs had fixed their haunts. These hills extend in a line from north to south, along nearly the whole length of the district, are covered with impervious jungles, and their passes unknown to the inhabitants of the plain, who cannot reside in them on account of their insalubrity. They suit, however, the constitutions of the Mughs, who from their infancy have been accustomed to the same sort of vitiated atmosphere in Aracan. The Company's troops, when the season permitted, have occasionally penetrated to one or two days journey within the hills, where they attacked and drove the insurgents from their stockades, which they destroyed, and compelled the garrisons to seek deeper recesses in the jungles. The aggressions of these Mughs are sometimes perpetrated by bodies of men, armed with spears and large daws (a crooked cutting instrument) three feet in length. After plundering a house, they fly to the jungles, where all traces of them are lost, and pursuit impracticable. In addition to this body of insurgent Mughs, who have posted themselves in the eastern hills, another party, consisting of 4,000 hill people and Mughs, in December 1813 took up their abode in a range of hills, called the Kanchuma hills, and being forced by starvation committed some outrages on the inhabitants of the plains, but these disturbances were easily suppressed by parties of sepoys dispatched by the magistrate. Adverting to the wild and unhealthy nature of the country in which these disorderly tribes have settled, it may be deserving of consideration, whether it would not be preferable to attempt an arrangement similar to that effected by Mr. Cleveland with the rebellious hill chiefs of Boglipoor, rather than continue a permanent hostility, without a prospect of any durable advantage short of the utter extermination of these savages.—*(J. Grant, Stewart, Public MS. Documents, Pechel, Fogo, Ker, Morgan, &c. &c. &c.)*

ISLAMABAD *(the Residence of the Faith)*.—This place stands on the west side of the Chittagong river, about eight miles above its junction with the sea, and a

travelling distance of 317 miles east from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 22′ N. long. 91° 42′ E. In the neighbourhood a sort of canvass is made from cotton, and vessels of considerable burthen are built, both from imported timber and of that which is the growth of the district. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows; "Chittagong is a large city, situated among trees on the banks of the sea. It is a great emporium, being the resort of Christians and other merchants.—*(Abul Fazel, Rennell, Colebrooke, &c.)*

SEETACOOND *(Sitacund, the Pool of Seeta)*.—A remarkable hot well, with a village adjacent, situated about 17 miles north from Islamabad. Lat. 22° 37′ N. long. 91° 36′ E.

MEERCASERAI.—A small town in the Chittagong district, 35 miles N. by W. from Islamabad. Lat. 22° 48′ N. long. 91° 30′ E.

KOOKIES *(Cucis or Lunctas)*.—The Kookies are a wild race of people, who live among the mountains to the north east of the Chittagong district, at a greater distance from the inhabitants of the plain, than another tribe named the Choomeas; they are consequently but little known to Europeans, and are seldom seen except when they visit the markets on the borders of the jungles, in the Runganeah and Aurungabad divisions, to purchase salt, dried fish and tobacco.

The Kookies are a stout muscular people, but not tall, and have the peculiar features of all the natives of the eastern quarter of Asia, namely, the flat nose, small eye, and broad round face. They are all hunters and warriors, and separated into a number of distinct tribes, all independent of each other. They are armed with bows and arrows, clubs, spears, and daws. They choose for the sites of their villages the steepest and most inaccessible hills, and each village generally contains from 500 to 2,000 inhabitants. Like other savages the Kookies are engaged in perpetual warfare, and prefer ambuscades and surprises to regular open fighting. When upon a secret expedition, they fasten their hammocks among the branches of the loftiest trees, so as not to be perceived from below. Among these tribes salt is in high estimation, and a little is always sent with a message to certify its importance. Next to personal valour, the accomplishment most valued in a warrior is a superior dexterity in stealing.

This miserable race are of a most vindictive disposition, and blood must always be shed for blood on the principle of retaliation. As they have no prejudice of caste, no animal killed in the chase is rejected; an elephant is consequently considered an immense prize, from the quantity of food he affords. Every five years they migrate from one situation to another, but seldom to a greater distance than 12 hours journey. Their domestic animals are gayals, goats, hogs, dogs, and fowls, but the first is the most valued; yet they make no use whatever of the milk, the gayals being entirely reared for their flesh and

skins. The Kookies have an idea of a future state, where they are rewarded or punished according to their merits in this world. They conceive that nothing is more pleasing to the deity, or more certainly insures their future happiness, than destroying a great number of their enemies. They are a great terror to the inhabitants of the Chittagong district, and are a particular annoyance to the wood-cutters.—*(Macrae, &c.)*

RAMOO.—This town is situated on a plain, near the southern extremity of the Chittagong district, about 60 miles south from Islamabad the capital.

Ramoo being a fertile and populous plain, and the medium of all intercourse carried on in the country contiguous to the Nauf river, if any ground could be found not flooded by the rains, it would be a most eligible position for a frontier station towards Aracan; but, unfortunately, from the hills to the sea, no spot of ground more than 50 yards square beyond the level of the inundation is to be found. The situation is also known from experience to be singularly unhealthy; yet it suits the temperament of the Mughs, who have settled in great numbers in the vicinity.—*(Morgan, &c.)*

COXE'S BAZAR.—This town is situated at the mouth of the Nauf river, about nine miles south of Ramoo, and near the southern extremity of the Chittagong district. This is a very high, clear, and open situation, being the termination of what are called the white cliffs. It has a long and open beach to the sea on the south; on the west, bounded by the sea; and on the north by the Ramoo plain, and is on the direct road by the sea to Teaknauf. No jungle approaches the station within half a mile, and excellent water flows from springs in the cliffs. There is here a high and clear spot of ground sufficient to canton five companies of sepoys; and in 1816, a custom-house towards the Aracan frontier was established here. In 1814, the Mugh population alone occupied 800 huts.—*(Morgan, &c. &c.)*

MASCAL ISLE.—This island is situated between the 21st and 22d degrees of north latitude, and is separated from the main land of the Chittagong district by a very narrow strait. In length it may be estimated at 15 miles, by 10 the average breadth. It is thinly peopled and indifferently cultivated, but it yields two of the most epicurean luxuries, oysters of an excellent flavour, and sea turtle.

KUTUBDEA ISLE.—This island is separated from the main land of Chittagong by a narrow strait, no where exceeding two miles in breadth. In length it may be estimated at 13 miles, by 4 the average breadth; and like its neighbour Mascal abounds with excellent oysters, which are transported to Dacca and Calcutta for the gratification of European appetites; the natives having an aversion to every species of testaceous fish.

SUNDEEP ISLE *(Somadwipà, the Isle of the Moon).*—This island lies at the mouth of the great Megna, formed by the united waters of the mighty Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, and consists of alluvial deposits of long continuance. In length it may be estimated at 16 miles, by 8 the average breadth. It is attached to the Chittagong district, and subordinate to its magistrate, but during the south west monsoon is frequently cut off for a considerable time from all communication with the continent. There is here a government establishment for the manufacture of salt under the direction of the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

Towards the conclusion of the 16th century, a number of Portugueze settled on the coasts of Chittagong and Aracan, many of whom had entered into the service of the native princes, and obtained commands and grants of land. These adventurers were extirpated or expelled from Aracan about A. D. 1607; the few who escaped taking refuge among the islands, where they continued the practice of piracy. Futteh Khan, the Mogul governor of Sundeep, having attempted to suppress them, was himself defeated and killed, and his whole fleet captured. On this event the pirates selected for their chief a common sailor, named Sebastian Gonzales, and, in 1609, gained possession of Sundeep, after murdering the garrison.

Sebastian, after this success, established an independent principality; his force, amounting to 1000 Portugueze, 2000 native troops, 200 cavalry, and 80 vessels of different sizes, well supplied with cannon; and with this equipment he soon subdued the adjacent island of Shahabazpoor, which, with several smaller ones he added to his dominions. With a little common prudence and moderation his power might have attained a great height, and been permanent; but he soon disgusted his own subjects by the brutal tyranny of his conduct, and rendered the Moguls and Aracaners hostile by the perfidy of his policy. After many vicissitudes he was abandoned by the greater part of his followers; and in 1616 was defeated by the Raja of Aracan, who conquered Sundeep and the other islands, from whence, under the name of Mughs, the Aracaners infested and devastated the lower districts of Bengal, carrying off the inhabitants into slavery.

Sundeep continued in the possession of these barbarians until A. D. 1666, when Shaista Khan, the Mogul governor of Bengal, having fitted out a strong fleet at Dacca, dispatched it down the Megna to attack Sundeep, where the Mughs had erected blockaded fortifications, which they defended with great resolution for a considerable time, but were at length all taken or destroyed. Since that period it remained attached to the Mogul of Bengal, and devolved along with the province to the East India Company.—*(Stewart, Crisp, &c. &c.)*

HATTIA ISLE.—This island, like the preceding, is formed by the sediment from the great Megna, and in length may be estimated at 14 miles, by 10 the average breadth. By alluvions on the western side, it is now nearly joined to the contiguous island of Dukkin Shahabazpoor. The island of Hattia is subordinate to the jurisdiction of the Chittagong magistracy, from which district, however, it is cut off by two considerable arms of the sea, so as to render the communication difficult even in moderate weather; but during the south-west monsoon, a cessation of all intercourse with the Chittagong side takes place, for two or three weeks at a time. The surface of this island lies extremely low, and at spring tides, during the height of the rains, it is nearly submerged. It is, notwithstanding, very productive in grain, and yields besides salt of an excellent quality, which is manufactured here on government account, and brings a high price at the periodical sales in Calcutta.

BAMEENY *(Vamani)*.—This island is also a deposit from the waters of the great Ganges and Brahmaputra, where they unite with the ocean in the bay of Bengal, under the name of Megna, and, like the adjacent islands, is very little elevated above the surface of the water. In length it may be estimated at 12 miles, by 5 the average breadth. The tide runs in the channels near Bameeny with such frightful strength and rapidity, as to render the passage to and from the island extremely dangerous. There is here a government establishment for the manufacture of salt, subordinate to the Bulwa and Chittagong agency.

CHOOMEAS.—A savage people inhabiting the first range of hills to the north and east of the province of Chittagong, and tributary to the British government. Their villages are called chooms, but they seldom remain longer than two years on one spot: beyond them are the Kookies, with whom the Choomeas traffic; but the Kookies never allow them to enter their villages, the interchange being carried on at particular stations.—*(Macrae, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF TIPERAH *(Tripura)*.

This large district is situated principally between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Silhet and Dacca Jelalpoor; on the south by Chittagong and the sea; to the east it is separated by hills and deep forests from the Birman dominions; and on the west it has the great river Megna and the district of Dacca Jelalpoor. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—" Bordering upon Bhatty, is a very extensive country, subject to the chief of Tiperah; him they style Yeyah Manick. Whoever is possessed of the rajaship bears the title of Manick, and all the nobility are called Narrain.. Their military force consists of 1000 elephants and 200,000 infantry; but they have few or no cavalry."

The Tiperah district, also named Roushenabad, is the chief eastern boundary of Bengal, and is of very large dimensions. In 1784, it was estimated to contain 6618 square miles, but various lands have since been added to it; and its eastern limits are not yet accurately defined. Towards this quarter the country is extremely wild and overgrown with jungle, abounding with elephants; but that part of it adjacent to the Megna is rich, fertile, and commercial. The inhabitants of the mountainous and woody tract on the eastern frontier are named Kookies, and live in a state of the most savage barbarity. The manick, or zemindar of Tiperah, is an independent sovereign, of an extensive territory beyond the hills, but usually resides in the town of Comillah, which is the head quarters of the judge and magistrate. Maharaja Rajedhur Manick, the existing chief in 1801, was much addicted to inebriety, and through imbecility and mismanagement so involved his circumstances, that the zemindary is much reduced. Taking the district generally, both the population and cultivation have greatly increased since the decennial settlement. In many cases the cultivators, from caprice or necessity, quit old estates liable for revenue, to till waste lands, which they receive at a low assessment; but to the utter ruin of the old landholders, who are frequently seen begging from their former dependants. In 1801, the uncultivated land was estimated by the collector to bear the proportion of one-eighth to the cultivated, which is probably much too small; and the zemindar's profit was suppposed to exceed ten per cent. on the land-tax. The same officer calculated, that the produce of rent-free lands bore a ratio of one-sixth to the jumma of lands paying revenue to government; the last being comparatively in the best state of cultivation. There are no large towns in this district, but many of a moderate size; of which description are Comillah, the capital, Luckipoor, Daoudcaundy, and Chandpoor.

That portion of the Tiperah district adjacent to the course of the Megna from Daoudcaundy to Luckipoor, is famous for the production of excellent betel nut, which is held in high estimation by the Birmans and Aracaners, who arrive annually in fleets of boats, and buy it all up, paying mostly in ready money. This traffic is so regularly established, that they contract for the produce of the betel nut plantations for the ensuing year. The coarse cotton goods of this country are known all over the world by the names of baftaes, and cossaes, and are an excellent, durable, and substantial fabric. They form every year a considerable part of the Company's investment. These goods are also largely exported by private merchants. The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are cotton, rice, and betel nut; and the cultivation of the whole is increasing, especially of the first, which may greatly be ascribed to the exertions of the European mer-

chants settled in the district. In 1814, the amount of the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, was 1,134,888 rupees. Along the sea coast salt is manufactured on government account. In Tiperah there are not any regular schools or seminaries, where the Hindoo and Mahommedan laws and religion are taught; and the lower classes of women have the reputation of being much addicted to suicide.

Among the forests of Tiperah the gayal is found in a wild state, and the number of elephants annually caught is very considerable; but they are reckoned inferior to those of Chittagong and Pegu. The height of this animal has in general been greatly exaggerated. In India the height of females is commonly from seven to eight feet, and that of males from eight to ten feet, measured at the shoulder as horses are. The largest ever known with certainty, belonged to Asoph ud Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude, and was taken in 1796; the perpendicular height at the shoulder was ten feet six inches. One belonging to the Nabob of Dacca, Nusrit Jung, in 1798, and of a great age, measured 10 feet high. The height required by the British government in Bengal for the elephants purchased for their service is nine feet.

This district appears to have been the seat of an independent Hindoo principality, for many centuries after the Mahommedans had by conquest obtained possession of the rest of Bengal; but its limits, probably, did not then, as now, approach the banks of the Brahmaputra and Megna. By Mahommedan historians it is termed the country of Jagenagur. In A. D. 1279, it was invaded by Toghril, the Patan governor of Bengal, who plundered the inhabitants, and brought away 100 elephants. In 1343, it was again invaded by Ilyas, the second independent Bengal sovereign, who also carried off many valuable elephants, but effected no permanent acquisition.

For a series of succeeding years this state continued to maintain its independence, which is surprising when its vicinity to Dacca, so long the capital of Bengal, is considered, nor was it brought under the sway of the Moguls, until the fabric of their domination was tottering to its base. In 1733, a nephew of the Tiperah Raja's fled to Dacca, and requested assistance against his uncle, which was granted, under the command of Meer Hubbeeb Oolla. This officer crossed the Brahmaputra, and being conducted by the nephew, they reached the capital before the Raja had time to prepare for an effectual resistance; he was in consequence obliged to fly for refuge to the forests and mountains. On this event the nephew was put in possession of the government, on condition of paying a large annual tribute, and the whole extensive tract of country, so long unsubdued, fell an easy prey to a handful of undisciplined troops. After

the completion of the conquest, the ancient name, according to a Mahommedan custom, was changed to that of Roushenabad, and a body of soldiers was left to support the young Raja on his precarious throne.

On the acquisition of the dewanny in 1765, it devolved to the British government along with the rest of the province, and in 1801 was estimated by the public functionaries then in charge, to contain about 750,000 inhabitants, in the proportion of four Hindoos to three Mahommedans; but from subsequent investigation, there is every reason to suppose that the aggregate above specified scarcely amounts to one half of the real number. For many years this continued one of the most disturbed territories in the province; but latterly the police arrangements have been so much perfected, that in the last six months of the year 1813, not one instance of dacoity or gang robbery had occurred, and so rare were offences of a heinous nature, that on the 31st December, 1813, only four persons were in confinement for examination.—*(Stewart, J. Grant, Crisp, J. Elliott, Ryley, &c.)*

COMILLA.—This town is the modern capital of the Tiperah district, and is situated about 51 miles S. E. from Dacca. Lat. 23° 28′ N. long. 91° 2′ E. The roads in this vicinity have been greatly improved, or rather created, by the judicious application of the labour performed by the government convicts.

NOORNAGUR *(Nurnagara, the City of Light)*.—A small town in the Tiperah district, 50 miles E. by N. from Dacca. Lat. 23° 45′ N. long. 91° 5′ E.

LUCKIPOOR *(Lukshmipur)*.—This town stands a few miles inland from the banks of the great Megna, with which it communicates by a small river, about 60 miles S. by E. from the city of Dacca. Lat. 22° 56′ N. long. 90° 43′ E. Baftaes, and other coarse cotton goods of an excellent and substantial fabric, are manufactured in this neighbourhood, which is also very fertile and productive, being on the whole one of the cheapest places in the Company's dominions. Near Luckipoor, the river Megna expands to a breadth exceeding ten miles, and during the rainy season, when the shoaly islands are submerged, appears more like an inland sea of fresh water in motion than a river. In 1763, it rose six feet above its usual level, and occasioned an inundation that swept away the houses, cattle, and inhabitants of a whole subdivision.

CHANDPOOR *(Chandrapura)*.—This town is situated on the east side of the Megna, 33 miles S. S. E. from Dacca, lat. 23° 17′ N. long. 90° 41′ E. It has long been celebrated for the excellence of its oranges, which are of a particular sort, the skin being very thick, and adhering to the internal pulp only by a few fibres.

DAOUDCAUNDY.—This town is situated near the junction of the Goomty with the Megna, 25 miles S. E. from the city of Dacca, lat. 23° 30′ N. long. 90° 36′ E. During the rainy season, there is a passage from Dacca to

Comillah past this place, by the river Goomty, which in the dry season becomes too shallow to admit boats of even the smallest burthen.

KUNDAL *(Candala)*.—A town, or rather village, in the Tiperah district, 74 miles S. W. by S. from Dacca, lat. 23° 12′ N. long. 91° 18′ E. The adjacent country is almost one entire forest, abounding with all sorts of wild animals, particularly elephants of an excellent quality, although reckoned inferior to those of Chittagong and the countries further south.

COLINDA.—This town is situated in a flat and swampy portion of the Tiperah district, 73 miles S. E. from Dacca, lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 91° 6′ E. In the surrounding country baftaes, cossaes, and other coarse cotton goods of an excellent quality are manufactured, remarkable for the weight of the raw material they contain.

JOOGDEA *(Yugadeva)*.—This town is situated in the southern extremity of the Tiperah district, 76 miles S. E. from the city of Dacca. Lat. 22° 50′ N. long. 91° 12′ E. In the circumjacent country coarse baftaes of an excellent fabric are manufactured; and the Company have, in the vicinity, an establishment for the manufacture of salt, but the article procured is not held in the same estimation by the natives as that made near the mouths of the sacred Ganges.

THE DISTRICT OF DACCA JELALPOOR.

Since the separation of the Backergunge jurisdiction in A. D. 1800, this district may be described as being situated principally between the 23d and 24th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Mymunsingh; on the south by Tiperah and Backergunge; to the east it has Tiperah; and on the west Rajshahy and Jessore. Prior to the new arrangement in 1800, this district was the largest and one of the most valuable in Bengal, stretching as far south as the sea, and reaching north to the Garrow mountains. It then comprised 15,397 British square miles, subdivided into a number of zemindaries, and was reckoned the granary of rice for Bengal, a distinction it still retains. During the rainy season, the greatest part of this district exhibits the appearance of an immense lake, in which villages raised on artificial embankments seem scattered like islands, and being intersected by two of the largest rivers in the world (the Brahmaputra and Ganges), is subject annually to considerable changes in the boundaries of estates; large portions, owing to the impetuosity of the torrents, being transferred from one side of the river to the other, occasioning infinite trouble to the revenue officers, and loss to the government. These annual inundations, however, have a beneficial effect in fertilizing the land in the vicinity; notwithstanding which circumstance, there is scarcely a district

in Bengal, where more jungle and unoccupied land are to be found. The whole of the latter is claimed as the property of individuals; who, although they derive from it no profit, and are themselves too indolent to render it productive, will not suffer others to bring it into a state of cultivation without exacting a disproportionate recompense for the permission.

It must nevertheless be allowed that Dacca Jelalpoor has been in a progressive state of improvement since the famine of 1787, when extensive tracts of excellent land, particularly Bowal, Cossimpoor, and Taliabad, were utterly depopulated, and still continue so, overgrown with jungle, and so infested with wild elephants, that the peasantry find it almost impracticable to prosecute cultivation, their labours are so rapidly destroyed. In other quarters, tracts of country, formerly covered with brushwood and rank vegetation, are now cleared of jungle, and exhibit villages and cultivated fields dispersed over the surface. The ancient mosques and Hindoo temples are mostly deserted and in ruins; but those of modern date are kept in tolerable repair. Several modern temples and obelisks have also risen, and probably many improved domestic buildings, which, from the concealed and secluded situations always selected by the natives, do not so often attract the notice of the traveller. In the vicinity of the capital, and especially to the south, are the remains of many fortresses and redoubts, built to oppose the depredations of the Mughs, and to prevent their ascending the river; but they are all now in a ruinous condition, and their cannon honeycombed and unserviceable. Throughout this division there are many Hindoo schools, in which the rudiments of the Bengal language are taught, with the principles, or rather forms, of their religion and law.

The landed estates in this district consist mostly of small talooks, so divided and subdivided into minute portions, as to become almost evanescent. The business of the judicial department is consequently multifarious and intricate, and the European officers are compelled to have recourse for explications to the natives attached to their respective courts. The latter find it their interest to render the intricacy more perplexed, and as they, here as elsewhere, are alone masters of the detail, they are thereby enabled to aggravate the confusion. In 1802, the existing collector stated the following proportions of the cultivated to the uncultivated lands, but the latter appear in most cases to have been underrated by the revenue officers of that period. The rent-free lands were considered to be in the best state of cultivation.

Southward,	$\frac{1}{4}$th	uncultivated to	$\frac{3}{4}$ths	cultivated.
Northward,	$\frac{5}{8}$ths	ditto	$\frac{3}{8}$ths	ditto.
Eastward,	$\frac{1}{8}$th	ditto	$\frac{7}{8}$ths	ditto.
Westward,	$\frac{3}{8}$ths	ditto	$\frac{5}{8}$ths	ditto.

The most valuable agricultural productions are rice, betel nut, cotton, hemp, and sugar. In 1814, the jumma, or land tax assessment, amounted to 1,289,145 rupees, and the abkarry to 29,212 rupees.

Plain muslins, distinguished by different names according to the fineness and closeness of the texture, as well as flowered, striped, or chequered muslins, are fabricated chiefly in this district, where a species of cotton named the banga grows, necessary, although not of a very superior quality, to form the stripes of the finest muslins, for which the city of Dacca has been so long celebrated. The northern parts of Benares furnish both plain and flowered muslins, which are not ill adapted for common uses, though incapable of sustaining any competition with the beautiful and inimitable fabrics of Dacca. Dimities of various kinds and patterns, and cloths resembling diaper and damask linen, are also made in this district. The export of the above staple articles has much decreased; and the art of manufacturing some of the finest species of muslins is in danger of being lost, the orders for them being so few, that many of the families, who possess by hereditary instruction the art of fabricating them, have desisted, on account of the difficulty they afterwards experience in disposing of them. This decline may partly be accounted for, from the utter stagnation of demand in the upper provinces since the downfal of the imperial government, prior to which these delicate and beautiful fabrics were in such estimation, not only at the court of Delhi, but among all classes of the high nobility of India, as to render it difficult to supply the demand. Among more recent causes also, may be adduced the French revolution, the degree of perfection to which this particular manufacture has lately been brought in Great Britain, the great diminution of the Company's investment, and the advance in the price of cotton. The principal towns in this division are Dacca, Narraingunge, Soonergong, and Rajanagur. In 1801, the total population was computed to be 938,712 inhabitants, one half Hindoo and the other Mahommedan. A portion of this population are slaves, and the custom of disposing of persons already in a state of slavery is common throughout the district. On these occasions regular deeds of sale are executed, some of which are registered in the court of justice, and when an estate to which slaves are attached is sold privately, the slaves are commonly sold at the same time, although a separate deed of sale is always executed.

During the Mahommedan government, the Dacca province was ruled by a foujdar, or commandant, the last of whom, prior to the British conquest, was Shahamut Jung Nowazish Mahommed Khan, nephew and son in law to Aliverdi Khan. He was at once dewan of the whole soubah of Bengal, and nabob nazim of Dacca, with all the provinces to the eastward. It was in search of the treasures amassed by his deputy, Raj Bullub, and supposed to have been concealed by his son, Krishna Das, when he took refuge in Calcutta, that Seraje ud Dowlah

in an evil hour commenced the war, which for him ended so fatally. During the two years soubahdary of the nabob Jaffier Khan, after the expulsion of Cossim Ali Khan, Mahommed Reza Khan acted as naib at Dacca.

After the British conquest, this large division of Bengal was partitioned into different districts, under the jurisdiction of distinct judicial and fiscal officers, and having a peculiar court of circuit and appeal for the superintendance of the whole. At present the most prevalent crimes of enormity in this district are murder, robbery, theft, perjury, armed affrays, the encroachment of zemindars, and the collusion of informers by profession, who conceal the principals, and derive a maintenance from the contributions they levy on the gangs, with which they are privately connected. The inherent timidity of the native facilitates the plunder, while his want of moral principle leads him to view the deed rather as an adroit exploit, than an heinous crime against society. In recent times, however, the Bengal government by steady and persevering exertions has greatly reduced the number, as well as the atrocity of the crimes committed, so that in 1813, it was reported by the superintendant of police, that no dacoity or gang robbery whatever had occurred during the last quarter of that year. This improvement continued so progressive, that in 1815 the third judge of the court of circuit reported, that he considered the perpetration of dacoity or gang robbery to have been finally suppressed. On a general view of the Dacca division, crimes of great enormity had in a manner ceased to be perpetrated, and (with the exception of burglary) other crimes were less frequent, the consequence of a more vigilant controul exercised by the police departments, and a due enforcement of the penal regulations. In the criminal calendars generally more Mahommedans than Hindoos are to be found; but in civil suits the latte form the majority.—*(J. Grant, Colebrooke, J. D. Paterson, Crisp, Massie, Rees, Shakespear, &c. &c. &c.)*

Dacca *(Dhaca)*.—This large town is situated beyond the principal stream of the Ganges, but a great branch named the Booree Gunga, or old Ganges, above a mile wide, runs past it. Indeed few situations are better calculated for inland commerce than this city, as its river communicates with all the other interior navigations by a direct course. Its site is about 100 miles above the mouth of the Ganges, and 180 by road from Calcutta; but the journey by water, on account of the circuitous route and twistings of the river, occupies from one to two weeks, and the space gone over probably exceeds 400 miles. Lat. 23° 42′ N. long. 90° 17′ E.

Dacca succeeded to Soonergong as the provincial capital of the eastern quarter of Bengal, and is the third city (if not the second) of the province, in point of extent and population. The country around it lying low, and being always

covered with verdure during the dry months, it is not subject to such violent heats as Benares, Patna, and other places in Bahar. The unhealthy season is from 20th of August to the 10th of October; during which period the rivers are subsiding, and the inundation draining off the land; but upon the whole it is one of the healthiest and most pleasant stations in Bengal. It manufactures and exports many varieties of the finest muslins, in the delicacy and beauty of which fabric it surpasses the whole world. A considerable proportion of the cotton is raised in the adjacent country, but a great deal is also received by the course of the Ganges from Patna and Upper Hindostan.

That Dacca is a city comparatively modern, is proved by its not being mentioned by Abul Fazel, at least under that name, in the Ayeen Acberry. In A. D. 1608, the seat of government was removed from Rajemal to the city of Dacca, by the then governor general of Bengal, Islam Khan, who, in compliment to the reigning emperor, changed its name to Jehangire Nuggur. Here he built a palace and brick fort, some remains of which are still to be seen. This transfer of the seat of government was probably occasioned by the ravages then perpetrating in the south eastern quarter by the Mughs of Araçan, and the Portugueze pirates under Sebastian Gonzales. In 1657, Meer Jumla, the great commander under Aurengzebe, pursued the unfortunate Sultan Shujah to this place, and again constituted it the metropolis, the seat of government having been for some years previous transferred to Rajemal.

It is related that during the second viceroyship of Shaista Khan, rice was so cheap at Dacca, that 640 pounds weight might be had in the market for one rupee. To commemorate this event, as he was leaving Dacca, in 1689, he ordered the western gate to be built up, and an inscription placed thereon, forbidding any future governor to open it until he had reduced the price to as cheap a rate, and in consequence of this injunction it remained shut until the reign of Serferauz Khan in 1739. But this city has had more than one period of prosperity and decay. It appears to have attained its greatest splendour during the reign of Aurengzebe, and judging from the magnificence of its ruins, such as bridges, brick causeways, mosques, caravanserai, gates, palaces, and gardens, now overgrown with jungle, it must have vied in extent and riches with the greatest cities, Gour alone excepted. Its earliest permanent decline appears to have commenced with the troubles and distractions which followed the invasion of the Mogul empire by Nadir Shah, and that it did not experience the fate of Gour may be attributed partly to its salubrity, and partly to the peculiar commercial advantages of its situation.

In this state of decay it remained with little variation, until the establishment in 1774, of provincial councils, when becoming the centre of law and revenue, it

again exhibited a show of opulence, being resorted to by zemindars and principal inhabitants of the division, many of whom lived in a style of considerable grandeur. From this elevation it fell off on the abolition of the council, and the appointment of judges and collectors to the different districts, which rendered a residence in this city no longer convenient or necessary, and induced them, very beneficially for the country at large, to live on their estates. Since that period the city has gained nothing of its former magnificence in respect to domestic buildings, or style of living among the upper classes of natives; but the mercantile, middling, and industrious classes, have by no means decreased, and the limits of the inhabited portion of the city have considerably expanded, which must be ascribed to its healthiness, the superiority of its commercial position, and the excellence of its police.

During the Mogul sway, the naval establishment maintained at Dacca consisted of 768 armed cruizers, stationed principally in this division of the province, to guard the southern coast against the ravages of the Aracaners, and occasionally to augment the splendour of religious and other ceremonies. In this watery quarter the veneration of the Hindoos for the tutelary deities of their rivers is extreme, and their ceremonies in honour of them exhibit a degree of cheerfulness and animation unknown elsewhere. The delight they seem to receive from their aquatic rituals has influenced the more solemn Mussulmauns in many respects to imitate them; the latter assigning the superintendance of the floods to Khaujeh Khizzer, supposed to be the prophet Elias. For the support of this fleet the land revenue of several districts was assigned, amounting to 30,000 rupees per month, being the expense of the boats and their crews, of whom nearly 1,000 were country born Portugueze. Towards the end of the 17th century, Dacca was the residence of Azim Ushaun, Aurengzebe's grandson, who commenced and nearly finished a magnificent and extensive palace now in ruins. About this era also, was probably fabricated one of those enormous and useless guns, not uncommon in the Deccan and other parts of India, and which was still to be seen so late as 1790. It was made of hammered iron, and consisted of an immense tube of 14 bars with rings driven over them, and beaten down to a smooth surface, so that its appearance was very good although its proportions were faulty. From its size this gun must have weighed 64,814 pounds, or about the weight of eleven 32 pounders. The weight of an iron shot for the gun must have exceeded 400 pounds, but the experiment of discharging it was probably never tried.

The present town of Dacca stands on a great deal of ground, and including the suburbs, extends six miles along the banks of the river; but its breadth is not in proportion. Like other native towns, it is a mixture of brick and thatch

houses, with very narrow and crooked streets. The latter description of houses being of very combustible materials are generally burned down once, if not twice per annum, and are viewed while burning, by their owners, with an apathy truly Asiatic. Into large earthern pots, sunk in the floor, they throw the few valuables they possess, and mats, thatch and bamboos being plenty, the expenditure of a few rupees restores their edifice to all its original splendour. These fires generally originate with the owners of the house building materials; and when a fleet of boats loaded with them arrives, a conflagration may be expected to ensure a ready sale. Dacca continues a very populous city, although it suffered greatly, apparently remote as it is, by the French revolution, its beautiful fabrics having been held in great estimation at the old French court. In 1801, although its commerce from a variety of circumstances had greatly stagnated, the total population was estimated by the magistrate to exceed 200,000, in the proportion of 145 Mahommedans to 130 Hindoos. Besides the genuine natives there are many respectable Greek, Armenian, and Portugueze merchants settled here, who carry on a considerable traffic, and assist in diversifying the society. The Nabob of Dacca, Seid Ali Khan Nusrit Jung, has long been celebrated for the suavity of his manners and his steady attachment to the British government, which have been recognized in various public documents by the Marquis Cornwallis, Lord Teignmouth, the Marquis Wellesley, Sir George Barlow, Lord Minto, and the Marquis of Hastings. In 1807 an allowance of 3,000 rupees was granted to the nabob for the repair of a building devoted to religious purposes, not only on account of the uniform propriety of his conduct, and the respectability of his character, but also as a public indication of the disposition of the British government to support the freedom of religious worship among all classes of their subjects.

The people of Calcutta who speak the Gour dialect of the Bengalese, although confounded by the natives of Western Hindostan with the Bengalese, take in their turn the trouble to ridicule the inhabitants of Dacca, who are the proper Bengalese; and Calcutta being now the capital, the men of rank at Dacca are becoming ashamed of their provincial accent, and endeavour to imitate the Baboos (opulent Hindoo merchants) of the modern metropolis. The inhabitants of this city have always been noted as a quiet orderly race, remarkably attached both to the public functionaries placed over them, and to the British nation generally. The magistrate has consequently so few crimes of magnitude to report, that in the month of February, 1814, there were no commitments for trial before the court of circuit for the Dacca division. The districts comprising the eastern quarter of Bengal, and subordinate to the Dacca court of appeal and circuit, are, 1, Mymunsingh; 2, Silhet; 3, Tiperah; 4, Chittagong; 5, Backergunge; 6, Dacca Jelalpoor; and 7, the city of Dacca.

Travelling distance from Delhi 1107 miles.—*(Rennell, Stewart, J. Grant, Crisp, Melville, Public MS. documents, F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

NARRAINGUNGE *(Narayana Ganj)*.—This town stands on the west side of a branch of the Brahmaputra named the Situl Luckia, about 8 miles S. E. from Dacca, and is one of the most considerable inland trading towns in the province of Bengal. Lat. 23° 37′ N. long. 90° 35′ E.

The inhabitants of Narraingunge exceed 15,000 in number, and carry on a great trade in salt, grain, tobacco, and lime; and the town exhibits a scene of commercial bustle and activity seldom seen in a community entirely composed of Hindoos. A majority of the principal merchants are not natives of the town, nor of the surrounding country, but accidental settlers from distant districts, who do not bring their families along with them. During the height of the rains, the adjacent country is almost wholly covered with water; but when within bounds, the Luckia is one of the most beautiful rivers in Bengal, and presents an extraordinary scene of animated industry. On the margins of the rivers in the vicinity of Narraingunge, are the remains of many fortifications, erected to repel the invasions of the Mughs of Aracan, but which do not to a scientific eye appear well calculated for the purpose intended. On the opposite side, on the Situl, or silver, Luckia, is a place of Mahommedan pilgrimage, named Cuddumresool, where is shewn a footmark of the prophet, much reverenced by the pious of that faith, who resort to it in great numbers from Dacca and the adjacent villages.

PUCOLOE.—A town in the Dacca Jelalpoor district, 34 miles N. N. W. from Dacca, lat. 24° 8′ N. long. 89° 55′ E.

ATTYAH.—A small town in the Jelalpoor district, 44 miles N. W. by N. from Dacca, lat. 24° 10′ N. long. 89° 48′ E.

HAJIGUNGE.—A small town in the district of Dacca Jelalpoor, 29 miles W.S.W. from Dacca, lat. 23° 31′ N. long. 89° 53′ E.

SOONERGONG *(Suvarna Grama, the Golden Village)*.—This is reputed to have been once a large city, the provincial capital of the eastern division of Bengal, before Dacca was in existence, but it is now dwindled down to a village, situated on one of the branches of the Brahmaputra, about 13 miles S. E. from Dacca, lat. 23° 39′ N. long. 90° 43′ E. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is celebrated for the manufacture of a beautiful cloth named cassas (cossaes), and the fabrics it still produces justify to the present generation its ancient renown.

A. D. 1279, the Emperor Balin, when in pursuit of Toghril, the rebel governor of Bengal, arrived at this place, where he was complimented by Dhing Raj, the chief of the surrounding country. Fakher ud Deen, the first independent

Mussulmaun monarch of Bengal, fixed his residence at Soonergong A. D. 1340. From this period we hear nothing of it until 1809, when this quarter of Bengal was visited by Dr. Francis Buchanan, with the view of inquiring into its present condition and ancient history. On arriving at the town named Soonergong in Major Rennell's map, he was informed that Suvarnagrama or Soonergong, the former capital of Bengal, had been swept entirely away by the Brahmaputra, which river had in this quarter greatly deviated from its course.—*(Rennell, F. Buchanan, Stewart, &c.)*

FRINGYBAZAR.—This small town stands on the west side of the Dullasery river, formed of a branch of the Ganges and one of the Brahmaputra, about 13 miles S. W. of Dacca. Lat. 23° 33′ N. long. 90° 23′ E.

When Shaista Khan, the Mogul viceroy in 1666, invaded Chittagong, then possessed by the Mughs, he was joined by many of the native Portugueze, who fled to the Mogul army for protection. A considerable number of them he settled here, and from this circumstance the name of the place originated; but none of their descendants now remain. During the height of the rains, the vast expanse of water here appears like an inland sea, and the depth is very great.—*(Stewart, &c. &c.)*

RAJANAGUR.—This small town stands on the east side of the Puddah, or great branch of the Ganges, 23 miles S. by W. from Dacca. Lat. 23° 22′ N. long. 93° 14′ E.

BOWAL.—The country surrounding this miserable village was utterly depopulated during the famine of 1787, and in consequence became so overgrown with jungle, that it ever since has swarmed with game, among which may be enumerated, elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, buffaloes, wild boars, deer of many varieties, foxes, hares, jackals, tiger cats; and of the feathered tribes, floricans, peacocks, the domestic fowl in a wild state, different sorts of partridges, snipes, quail, wild ducks, teal, and wild pigeons. Wild elephants are here so numerous, that the peasantry, however willing, have found it almost impossible to commence cultivation, so immediately are their labours destroyed by the incursions of these animals. If under proper tillage and management, Bowal would be one of the most considerable zemindaries in the Dacca Jelalpoor district. The florican or curmoor (the otis houbara of Linnæus) exceeds all the Indian wild fowl in delicacy of flavour; its varied plumage, lofty carriage, and tuft of black feathers falling gracefully from its head, make it one of the most elegant. It is of the bustard species, but much smaller than the English otis.

ECDALA.—The town and fortress of Ecdala are frequently mentioned in the histories of Bengal, and are supposed by Major Rennell to have stood in lat. 24° 4′ N. long. 90° 45′ E. about 19 miles N. N. E. from Dacca, but not a ves-

tige of either now remains, and from the lowness of the surrounding country, during the rains, they must have been completely insulated.

In A. D. 1353, Ilyas Khan, the second independent monarch of Bengal, is said to have taken post here when his dominions were invaded by the Emperor Feroze, who advanced to this place and invested the fortress. The garrison, however, made so protracted a resistance, that the rains commenced and inundated the country, which compelled the emperor to raise the siege and retreat to Delhi. Sultan Seid Hossein Shah, the ruler of Bengal from 1499 to 1520, made this town his chief place of residence.—*(Stewart, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF MYMUNSINGH *(Myman Singh)*.

This district is situated principally between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Garrow mountains and the district of Rungpoor; on the south by Dacca Jelalpoor; to the east it has Silhet and Tiperah; and on the west Rajshahy and Dinagepoor.

Mymunsingh is of more recent formation than the adjacent police divisions; on which account it underwent no separate mensuration in 1784, but in 1801, it was supposed by Mr. Crisp to contain 6700 square miles. It is intersected throughout by the great river Brahmaputra, and the innumerable streams which flow into it; and the surface of the country being low and flat, it is, during the height of the rains, nearly submerged by the rising of the waters. The soil is nevertheless very fertile, and produces large quantities of coarse rice and mustard seed, which are the staple commodities. The cultivation, inland commerce, and general condition of the district, have greatly improved since the decennial settlement of the land revenue, afterwards rendered perpetual; yet in 1801, it was computed by the collector that one-fourth of the whole remained in a state of nature. In 1790, the country near Bygonbarry, the capital, which is now thickly inhabited, was a complete waste, the haunt of wild beasts and river pirates, who infested the Brahmaputra for a circuit of 100 miles. In 1801, the collector reported that the proportion of the produce of the rent-free lands was on an equality with the amount received from the lands paying revenue, and the zemindar's profit was very variable, some realizing almost nothing after payment of their land-tax, while others cleared 100 per cent. on that amount. Raja Raj Singh of Susung in this district, besides his estates within the British dominions, possesses a small independent territory beyond the hills. In 1814, the amount of the jumma, or land assessment, was 757,550 rupees, and the abkarry 21,900 rupees. The principal towns are Bygonbarry and Serajegunge.

In this district there are no regular seminaries for teaching the Mahommedan

law; but there are two or three schools in each pergunnah for instruction in Hindoo learning, where the scholars are taught gratuitously, it being deemed disgraceful to receive money for instruction. In 1801, the total population was estimated by Mr. Crisp at 1,360,000, in the proportion of 5 Hindoos to 3 Mahommedans. The district of Mymunsingh, although not so populous as the adjoining one of Raujeshy, is more extensive; and, although it has been partitioned into distinct police stations, and much jungle extirpated, still great exertions are requisite on the part of the magistrate and subordinate officers to keep the district in a state of tranquillity, and protect the inhabitants from the depredations and cruelties of gang robbers. In 1813, the number of gang robberies reported to have been committed, amounted to 63; and the gangs concerned in the perpetration of these atrocities were described as being of the most formidable character, consisting generally of from 40 to 70 men, armed with matchlocks, spears, and other weapons of offence. A great improvement, however, took place shortly afterwards, and in no part of the country were heinous offences more rapidly suppressed, or a more systematic and vigorous system of police introduced, than in the district of Mymunsingh, after Mr. Ewer assumed charge of the magistracy.—*(B. Crisp, Le Gros, J. Shakespear, Public MS. documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

BYGONBARRY *(Vaicantha bari)*.—This town is of modern creation, having been selected for the residence of the judge and magistrate of Mymunsingh, when that district was formed into a separate jurisdiction, about 1788. It stands on the west side of the Brahmaputra, about 75 miles N. by E. from the city of Dacca, lat. 24° 46′ N. long. 90° E.

SERAJEGUNGE.—This great commercial mart stands on the Jhinayi river, near its junction with the Konayi, in pergunnah Borobazee and district of Mymunsingh. It appears to have arisen since Major Rennell's survey in 1784, and is found in no map, yet it is probably, Calcutta excepted, the chief place of trade in Bengal.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

BOKINAGUR.—A small town in the Mymunsingh district, 71 miles N. by E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 43′ N. long. 90° 40′ E.

JUNGLEBARRY *(Jangalbari)*.—A small town in the Mymunsingh district, 60 miles N. E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 27′ N. long. 90° 42′ E.

BAJETPOOR.—A town in the Mymunsingh district, 48 miles N. E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 91° E.

SUSUNG.—The Susung and Sherpoor duties on the cotton brought for sale by the Garrows, are farmed out annually by Government to the highest bidder. In 1815, they were taken at 4625 rupees, having increased since the disturbances among the Garrows on the Rungpoor frontier.—*(Sisson, &c.)*

CAUGMARRY.—A small town in the Mymunsingh district, 38 miles N. N. W. from Dacca, lat. 24° 15′ N. long. 89° 48′ E.

MOODAPOOR.—A town in the Mymunsingh district, 68 miles N. by W. from Dacca, lat. 24° 36′ N. long. 90° 5′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF SILHET *(Srihata, a rich Market).*

This district is situated at the eastern extremity of Bengal, and principally between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north and east it is bounded by a lofty ridge of mountains, inhabited by many wild tribes; on the south by Tiperah and Mymunsingh; and on the west it has Mymunsingh. In 1784, it contained 2861 square miles, yet the revenue was only 239,924 rupees. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows:—"Sircar Silhet, containing eight mahals, revenue 6,681,621 dams. This sircar furnishes 1100 cavalry, 190 elephants, and 42,000 infantry. Sircar Silhet is very mountainous. It furnishes many eunuch slaves for the seraglio."

This is the most easterly of the British possessions in Hindostan, being within 350 miles of the province of Yunan in China. Although so near to this rich empire, no intercourse whatever subsists between them, nor has the intervening country ever been explored, or even penetrated, beyond a few miles from the frontier. The boundary mountains are a continuation of those which extend from Aracan and Chittagong to an unknown latitude north, and rise with singular abruptness from the plains below. Of the country beyond these we are almost entirely ignorant, having only native sources of information to rely on, at all times very defective, and in this case particularly so, as the informants belong to different savage tribes, but little removed above the brute creation. According to the best of these, there is reason to conjecture that the intermediate country between Silhet and China is a mountainous uncouth region, covered with jungle, destitute of navigable rivers, without towns or villages, and wholly trackless except to the savage aborigines. These difficulties, however, are by no means insurmountable, and it is to be hoped that the Bengal government will not much longer incur the reproach of leaving so contiguous a country unexplored. Probably a small military expedition would be best adapted to effect this purpose.

Under the Mogul government, Silhet was formed into a foujdarry, or military station, more on account of its remote and secluded situation beyond the Brahmaputra and Soormah, than from any reasonable apprehensions of foreign invasion, protected as it is by inaccessible hills, or impenetrable jungles. Its actual dimensions since the dismemberment of several pergunnahs are computed at 2861 miles, divided into 146 small pergunnahs, held by the same number of zemindars. Near to the town of Silhet, the country presents a novel appearance

to an eye long habituated to the flat surface of the lower districts of Bengal. It is composed of a number of conical shaped hills, with broad bases, rising irregularly at short distances from each other, and covered with trees and verdure to the very summit; while to the north and east lofty mountains rise abruptly like a wall, to the height of several thousand feet, and appear as if they had at some remote period withstood the surge of the ocean.

During the rains the greater proportion of the land is laid under water by the overflowing of the Soormah and other rivers by which it is intersected, and the passage from Dacca is performed for nearly the whole way over rice and pasture fields, which in the cold season are perfectly dry. Over this tract when the floods are at their height, there is from 8 to 10 feet of water; the elevated sites of the villages appear like islands; the masts of the vessels are entangled among the branches of trees, while their progress is impeded by the matted thickness and adhesion of the paddy stalks. When the inundation drains off, the land is left in an excellent condition for rice cultivation; this species of food is in consequence so plenty, that in 1801, rice, in the husk, sold for 15 rupees per 100 maunds (80lbs. each), and coarser grains were still cheaper. In addition to this supply every stream and puddle swarms with fish, which are caught with scarcely any trouble, with a hand-net, or even a piece of mat. Wages are consequently, as may be inferred, extremely low, being from half a rupee to 1½ rupees per month; but the labourers being naturally averse to exertion, and never working but when stimulated by the pangs or apprehension of hunger, the soil is on the whole very indifferently cultivated.

As has been stated above, the produce of this district, owing to the lowness of the grounds, and the swampy surface of a great proportion of the country, is principally rice; the more costly articles are cotton and sugar; the first raised on the hills, and the last on the more elevated spots of the different pergunnahs. Prior to 1801, the cotton cultivation had been much impeded by the predatory Kookies, a savage race of mountaineers who inhabit the recesses of the Tiperah and Cachar hills; and the Silhet hills being a continuation of the same range, they can suddenly issue forth, cut off those they meet with in small parties, and then retreat to their fastnesses among the hills. In 1800, no less than 18 persons were murdered by these marauders, which so intimidated the natives that the cotton cultivation was for the time abandoned, except on the more central hills within the district, but since that period the measures pursued by government to prevent a repetition of similar atrocities have removed all apprehension on this score, and the cultivation has been resumed. The culture of the sugar-cane does little more than supply the necessities of the district, which is on the whole not well adapted for the rearing of that plant.

Among the chief productions and staple commodities for exportation must be reckoned oranges and lime. The first are procured from extensive orange plantations, or rather forests, and the quantity annually exported is very great; Calcutta, and many other remote parts of the province, being supplied from hence. The quality is inferior to the delicious orange of Chandpoor in the Dacca district; but may vie with any other, and the price on the spot is frequently not more than one rupee per thousand. Something peculiar in soil or climate would appear to be required to fit a place for producing good oranges. In the whole extent of the British territories in Hindostan there are only three places where good oranges are produced; viz. the district of Silhet, Chandpoor, and Sautghur, at the foot of the eastern Ghauts or passes leading up to Bangalore from Madras. Chunam, or lime, is found in inexhaustible quantities among the boundary hills, and accessible during the rains, from whence it is transported by the inland navigation to the most distant parts of Bengal; but it is greatly inferior to the beautiful shell-chunam of Madras. A commerce in chunam, wax, ivory, and other articles, is carried on with the Cosseahs and other mountaineers on the eastern frontiers of Bengal. This was formerly a monopoly; but in 1799, a general freedom of trade in all those commodities was proclaimed, subject to particular police regulations to prevent frauds and quarrels. The other productions of Silhet are, aguru, or fragrant aloe wood, wild silk, and a cloth manufactured from it named muggadooties. Great numbers of elephants are annually caught on government account, but they are reckoned inferior both in size and quality to those nearer the sea coast, and of a more southern latitude. In 1814, coal was discovered to be abundant at Laour, near the frontier of Silhet, but the coal procured having been picked up on, and near the surface, proved inferior to the English pit coal, approaching in its nature to the canal coal, which may be considered as a spurious coal of a slaty kind. The strata was found in the broken bank of the river for a considerable extent, and at distances of several miles. Formerly large boats were built here for the royal Mogul fleet stationed at Dacca, and square-rigged vessels have since been occasionally constructed of timber, the growth of the country. The chief towns are Silhet and Azmerigunge; the principal rivers the Soormah and Megna.

In many pergunnahs bordering on the hills, where the torrents rise suddenly and inundate the adjacent country, embankments would be of great benefit, nor would the expense be great if the proprietors would contribute generally; but the collectors, after repeated trials found it impossible to unite them in a work which promised to be of such mutual advantage. In this district, for agricultural purposes, tanks are superfluous, the land being amply supplied with

moisture, and more apprehension entertained of an excessive fall, than of a deficiency of rain.

In 1801, the existing circumstances of Silhet tended to prove that the district had not experienced any very important amelioration, subsequent to the decennial settlement, neither had it wholly stagnated. Many of the estates which fall annually into arrears, and are exposed to public sale, are usually in a declining and unproductive condition, originating principally from the misconduct and bad management of the proprietors; the improper and illegal alienations of portions of their estates formerly made; and the irreconcilable feuds and dissentions which agitate the numerous co-proprietors of estates, however small and insignificant. On this last class of landholders, confinement works no sort of beneficial operation, as they are much more inclined to remain where they are, in jail, than to come out of it, and to such a state of subdivision have estates attained, that there is scarcely a convict who is not also a land proprietor. The population of Silhet not being sufficient for the cultivation of the whole, the peasantry are in the habit of cultivating the lands of several estates at one time, and in such quantities as circumstances permit, they are not therefore considered as exclusively attached to any zemindar. The consequence is, at the conclusion of the harvest they frequently shift from one to another, and the portion of land abandoned remains untilled, unless the proprietor can manage to procure in time other tenants. While jungle and other waste lands have been clearing, arable and cultivated fields are frequently observed relapsing to a state of nature, which is probably owing to a deficiency of population, and to the subdivision of property almost to evanescence. On the whole, however, cultivation may be described as having increased rather than diminished since the commencement of the decennial settlement. The peasantry are of themselves more disposed to engage in the culture of jungle lands, especially such as are covered with reeds, which during the dry season, when parched, may with little trouble be cleared, merely by the application of fire, and at the same time enriched by the ashes. In 1801, the collector estimated the waste and uncultivated lands at two-thirds of the whole district; but under the latter designation he probably also included the lands lying fallow.

An establishment named the Putwarry, exists in Silhet for the purpose of pointing out to individuals, the lands they have bought at the public sales, without which it would be extremely difficult for purchasers to discover and discriminate such property, the lands being scattered in small fragments, throughout different villages. To this establishment also the revenue officers are obliged to have recourse, to ascertain what lands are the just property of

the state, the adjacent zemindars being always alert in appropriating such lands, unincumbered with the payment of any land-tax to the public treasury. In 1801, it was estimated that the produce of the rent-free lands was about one-fourth to the whole land-tax paid by the district; and the lands exempted were then considered in the best state of cultivation. At that date the revenues of the whole district were collected in cowries, which was also the general medium of all pecuniary transactions, and a considerable expense was then incurred by government in effecting their conversion into bullion; but between that period and 1814, the circulation of these marine productions had been so gradually decreasing, that in 1813 the whole of the current revenue was realized in specie.

In Silhet there are no regular schools or seminaries for teaching either the Hindoo or Mahommedan law, but in different places there are private schools where boys are taught to read and write. Although the Mahommedans here bear so great a proportion to the whole population, the mosques have been long going to ruin, while several small paltry Hindoo temples have been erected, and some of the merchants have changed their thatched dwellings for others of brick and mortar. In 1801, Mr. Ahmuty computed the inhabitants of Silhet at 188,245 men, 164,381 females, and 140,319 children, making a total of 492,945 persons, in the proportion of two Mahommedans to three Hindoos; and Mr. Roberts, the magistrate, was of opinion that his jurisdiction, although one of the smallest in Bengal, contained no less than 27,000 Talookdars. The number of houses was estimated by the collector at 103,637; and the boats belonging to the district at 23,000. During the Mogul government, and even at a less distant period, children used to be purchased here, and resold at Dacca and other places. Along the frontier of Silhet, towards the Cosseah mountains, there are several brick redoubts, with bastions at each end for the guards and ammunition, and also, one at Bonasyl; the whole were built to repel the incursions of that uncivilized tribe which has long infested the low countries in their vicinity. A guard from the sebundy, or provincial battalion, is regularly stationed in each of the forts at Myaram, Bamgong, Chentislah, Kontakhal, and Punduah, and to them is intrusted the preservation of tranquillity on the frontier, where they are cantoned, and where they are periodically relieved by troops from head quarters. Whenever the official avocations of the magistrate permit, he is directed by his instructions to visit these forts, to ascertain their condition, and collect information regarding the state of the frontier in general.

In 1798, the low country of Bungong, on the north-west side of the Soomah river, was occupied by the Cosseah mountaineers, who scarcely ever

paid the revenue due to government, the recovery of which was found impracticable, as the individuals on appearance of coercion, fled to their native mountains, which are inaccessible to a military force. On a repetition of this practice, the Marquis Cornwallis, then Governor-General, directed the Cosseahs to be expelled, and the estates to be resumed and brought to public sale. After some trouble they were driven from the low lands, and confined to the hills, in the vicinity of which several masonry redoubts were erected and garrisoned with sepoys. From these measures much benefit resulted, and the pergunnah, then nearly in a state of nature, was settled and cultivated, and the amicable intercourse which afterwards took place had a tendency to civilize the habits of the wild people. Many murders, however, continue to be perpetrated on the borders of Silhet, by persons of this tribe, one of whose chiefs, in 1814, was named Jeett Singh. During that year a Cosseah council was convened, and the subject of their consideration was a dam, which had been opened by the peasantry within the British territories, in revenge for which they determined to carry fire and sword into the pergunnah of Prerua. This resolution they carried into prompt execution, under the immediate command of their chiefs, and in prosecution of it, destroyed two large villages, and killed four unoffending cultivators of the soil.

These atrocities were soon repressed, and the invaders driven to dens in the jungles; but their vicinity still continues a source of trouble and anxiety to every public functionary in charge of this district. By a gentleman who appears to know them well (Mr. Hayes) they are described as honest, fair in their dealings, of strict veracity, but outrageously vindictive; in the three first mentioned qualitities, exhibiting a most striking contrast to their more civilized neighbours on the low grounds. Occasionally they suffer arbitrary punishments and extortions from the inferior officers of government, who levy imposts of their own enactment on the articles of the traffic carried on between the inhabitants of Silhet and the Cosseahs, with whose chiefs they have been also accused of carrying on a clandestine correspondence.

During the Mogul government, as has already been mentioned, this district furnished a considerable number of slaves, and the practice of inveigling away its free natives, for the purpose of selling them at Dacca, Patna, Calcutta, and Moorshedabad, still continues, although from the vigilance of the British authorities the attempt is rarely successful. An authorized traffic in slaves has existed here from time immemorial, and one of the magistrates estimated them at one-sixth of the whole population, progressively increasing by domestic propagation. The transfer of slaves takes place both with and against the consent of the slaves themselves, but in the latter predicament, only the

mildest and most indulgent conduct can secure to the purchaser any benefit from his acquisition. Occasionally the poorer classes of free inhabitants sell themselves when in extreme distress, and a few, principally slaves, are inveigled away by bazeegurs and wandering fakeers. Women also of the poorer classes, both here and in the Backergunge district, when left widows, occasionally sell their children to procure food; some have been hereditary slaves for many generations, and are sold along with the estate on which they reside, while others are imported from Cachar, Gentiah, and other adjacent territories beyond the British jurisdiction.—*(John Ahmuty, Hayes, French, Sage, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

SILHET.—The travelling distance from Calcutta to this town is computed by Major Rennell at 325 miles; but the direct distance does not exceed 260. It stands in lat. 24° 55′ N. and long. 91° 40′ E. and is a place of considerable size and commerce.

LAOUR.—A town in the district of Silhet, 112 miles N. N. E. from the city of Dacca. Lat. 25° 10′ N. long. 91° 12′ E. A considerable trade is here carried on with the hill Garrows in salt and other articles.

AZMERIGUNGE *(Ajaminda ganj)*.—This is a town of considerable inland traffic, and has besides a boat-building establishment. It is situated about 75 miles N. E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 33′ N. long. 91° 5′ E.

TOROFF *(Taraf)*.—A town in the Silhet district, 77 miles N. E. from Dacca, lat. 24° 20′ N. long. 91° 18′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF RAJSHAHY *(Rajshahi)*.

This large district occupies the centre of the Bengal province, and is situated between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Dinagepoor and Mymunsingh; on the south by Birboom and Kishenagur; to the east it has Dacca, Jelalpoor, and Mymunsingh; and on the west Boglipoor and Birboom. This was the most extensive and unwieldy zemindary in Bengal, and in 1784, comprehended, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, 12,999 square miles, yielding a revenue of 24 lacks of rupees. It is intersected in its whole length by the Ganges, or lesser branches, with many navigable rivers and fertilizing streams, and so watery is its nature, that from the beginning of July to the end of November it is nearly submerged. In times of remote Hindoo antiquity, the particular portion, thus subject to prolonged inundation, was named the region of Varendra. The northern portion of the district, as it is now constituted, presents neither elevation, forest, road, or water-course, by the assumption of which a definite boundary might

be fixed. In the vicinity of Hurrial the face of the surrounding country is extremely wild, woody, and otherwise fitted for the harbouring of dacoits. For the protection of the jeels, or shallow lakes, a swift guard-boat of 16 oars is retained, commanded by a jemadar, who is especially enjoined to superintend the Chillam Jeel, the largest watery expanse of this description in Bengal.

In 1725, this zemindary was conferred on Ram Jevon, a Brahmin, the founder of the present family, but since that period it has suffered much dissection, and little space comparatively now remains with his descendants. On the whole, however, the district has considerably improved since the date of the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, much additional land having been reclaimed from waste, and the population also having visibly increased. From the very low surface of the district, it is ill adapted for the erection of solid edifices of brick or stone, and accordingly few are seen, and those are mostly insignificant Hindoo temples, or the more transitory dwellings of Europeans. The district contains no fort, except one belonging to the Nabob of Moorshedabad at Godagaree, which was built in former times as a place of refuge for the nabob's household, and is now in a most ruinous condition. The chief towns are Nattore (the residence of the magistrate), Bauleah, and Hurrial, and the district comprehends besides many populous, manufacturing, and commercial villages. Until the separation in modern times of several important pergunnahs, it produced four-fifths of all the silk, raw or manufactured, used in or exported from Hindostan. In 1801, the collector was of opinion that three-fourths of the zemindars realized more than ten per cent. on the amount of their land-tax, and that the produce of the rent-free lands might be about three lacks of rupees per annum. In 1814, the jumma, or land assessment was 1,469,814, and the abkarry 20,480. Prior to the separation of the pergunnahs above alluded to, the number of inhabitants was computed to be

Males, 1,107,683; Females, 890,080; total, 1,997,763:

but in 1801, they were estimated in round numbers at 1,500,000, in the proportion of two Hindoos to one Mahommedan. Within the limits of Rajshahy there are 27 distinct tannahs, besides subordinate police stations; and although not so extensive, it is more populous than the adjacent district of Mymunsingh. In consequence of an unusual deficiency of the periodical rains, so early as the months of July and August, 1814, serious apprehensions of a scarcity were entertained by the inhabitants of the northern portion of this zillah, and the grain merchants monopolized all they could purchase, until they at last raised the price far beyond the utmost means of the poorer classes. When December arrived, a scanty harvest was got in, but the natives were

driven to such extremities for food, that male and female infants were exposed to sale at the low prices of one, two, and three rupees, to save them from starvation, while many robberies were committed with the view of procuring immediate subsistence and satisfying the cravings of nature.—*(Wynch, C. Græme, jun. A. Gardner, J. Grant, J. Shakespear, Colebrooke, &c.)*

NATTORE *(Nathaver)*.—This place is situated 43 miles N. E. from Moorshedabad, and is the capital of Rajshahy district, being the head quarters of the judge and magistrate, and site of the jail, which is always the most prominent edifice in a Bengal district. Lat. 24° 25′ N. long. 88° 55′ E. Appearances favour the supposition that the Ganges once had its bed in the tract now occupied by lakes and morasses between Nattore and Jaffiergunge. During the inundation there is a straight navigation for 100 miles from Dacca to this place across the jeels, or shallow lakes, leaving the villages, erected on artificial mounds, and the clumps of trees projecting out of the water, to the right and left, while the current is so gentle as scarcely to exceed half a mile per hour.—*(Rennell, &c.)*

SEERPOOR *(Sirapura)*.—A small town in the Rajshahy district, 74 miles N. E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 38′ N. long. 89° 20′ E.

BAULEAH.—This is a town of some commercial importance, and stands on the north side of the Puddah or main branch of the Ganges, 21 miles N. E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 23′ N. long. 88° 44′ E. In 1815, a subsidiary police was established in this populous town, supported by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants. In 1814, a plantation of teak trees which had been effected here had a thriving appearance.

HURRIAL *(Arayalaya, the abode of Vishnu)*.—This is also a commercial mart, where the East India Company has long had an established factory for the purchasing of silk and cotton goods. Lat. 24° 19′ N. long. 89° 17′ E.

BETTOORIAH *(Bhitoria)*.—This was a subdivision of the great zemindary of Rajshahy. A. D. 1386, Raja Cansa, the Hindoo zemindar of this district, rebelled against Shums ud Deen, the Mahommedan sovereign of Bengal, who was defeated and slain. On this event Raja Cansa ascended the vacant throne, which, after a reign of seven years, he transmitted to his son Cheetmul, who, turning Mahommedan, reigned under the name of Sultan Jellal ud Deen.

BUXIPOOR.—A small town in the Rajshahy district, 51 miles S. E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 25° 15′ N. long. 88° 56′ E.

COMERCOLLY *(Kumarkhali)*.—This town stands a few miles south from the main stream of the great branch of the Ganges, named the Puddah, about 64 miles S. E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 23° 52′ N. long. 89° 11′ E. The East India Company have long had here an established factory and commercial resident for the purchasing of piece goods.

CUSTEE *(Kushti)*.—This is the port of Comercolly, and is situated close to the Ganges, 52 miles E. S. E. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 23° 4′ N. long. 89° 3′ E. During the rainy season there is a passage past this town for boats to the Hooghly river.

SHEEBGUNGE *(Sivaganj)*.—A large and flourishing village in the Rajshahy district, eligibly situated on the banks of the Caratoya river. This is a place of considerable commerce, and in point of size and population only inferior to Nattore and Bauleah.—*(Wynch, &c.)*

PUBNA *(Pavana)*.—A town in the Rajshahy district, 63 miles E. from the city of Moorshedabad. Lat. 24′ N. long. 89° 12′ E.

RAJAMAHAL.—This town and adjacent territory belong to the province of Bengal, although now annexed to the division of Boglipoor, which ranks as a Bahar district, and under which head further particulars will be found. In old documents it is also named Acber Nuggur from its capital, and in the revenue records Cankjole, as being the chief military division. It is situated on the south western bank of the Ganges, and was formerly the seat of an important military government on the confines of Bengal towards Bahar, commanding some of the mountainous passes into both countries, particularly the famous pass of Telliagurry, the possession of which was deemed of much consequence in the time of the hostile independence of the two Soubahs.

The city of Rajamahal stands on the S. W. side of the Ganges, about 70 miles N. N. W. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 25° 2′ N. long. 87° 43′ E. During the reign of the Emperor Acber, A. D. 1591, Raja Maun Singh, on his return from the conquest of the Afghans of Orissa, fixed upon the town of Agmahal for the capital of Bengal, the name of which he changed to Rajamahal; but by the Mahommedans it is occasionally distinguished by the name of Acbernuggur. The Raja in prosecution of his plan erected a palace, and surrounded the town with a rampart of brick and other fortifications. In 1608, the seat of government was removed from hence to Dacca by Islam Khan, but in 1639 was brought back by Sultan Shujah, the unfortunate brother of Aurengzebe, during whose government it attained great importance, being the established capital of the Bengal and Bahar provinces, for which it is admirably situated. This prince for his temporary residence erected a splendid building, called the Sunggedalan, or Stone Hall, which is now in a miserable state of ruin. A great deal of this building has been pulled down for its materials, especially the stones, which have been employed to construct the palaces of the nabobs of Moorshedabad, and much has been removed to make room for modern hovels.

Since the era above mentioned, Rajamahal has necessarily suffered great diminution, which has probably been accelerated by the removal of the British courts of justice to Boglipoor. It is, however, still a large place, but the

rubbish and dispersed state of the houses, render its appearance very dismal. It still contains 12 market places, scattered over an immense extent, and the resident population may be computed at 30,000, besides travellers by land and water, who are always numerous; and the supplying of whom with necessaries forms the principal support of the town. Within its limits is the tomb of Meerun, the son of Jaffier Ali, the predecessor and also the successor of Cossim Ali. Meerun (by whose orders Seraje ud Dowlah was assassinated) was killed by lightning, and buried here in a tomb of small size, but neatly kept, many flowers being planted near it.—*(F. Buchanan, Stewart, Lord Valentia, &c.)*

SICLYGULI *(Sancriguli, the Narrow Pass)*.—This celebrated pass is situated in in the province of Bengal, about eight miles N. by W. from Rajamahal, and marks the boundaries of the Bengal and Bahar provinces. This pass during the Hindoo and Mahommedan governments was the commanding entrance from Bahar into the kingdom of Bengal, and was fortified with a strong wall, which does not appear, however, to have been of any real service, as in 1742, a Maharatta army of cavalry penetrated into Bengal to the S.W. of this pass, through the hills above Colgong.

OUDANULLA *(Udayala Nala)*.—A small town in the Bengal portion of the Boglipoor district, 62 miles N. W. by N. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 56′ N. long. 87° 52′ E. There is not any substance so coarse as gravel, either in the Delta of the Ganges, or nearer the sea than Oudanulla, which is 400 miles distant by the windings of the river. At this place a rocky point, part of the base of the neighbouring hills, projects into the river. Besides an elegant bridge erected here by the unfortunate Sultan Shujah, this place is noted for the extensive lines constructed here by Cossim Ali, and forced by the troops under Major Adams in 1764. These lines in fact could only be of use during the rainy season, as between the right flank and the hills, there is an extensive tract of rice ground. The lines are now a complete ruin, and very few traces remain of the approaches made by the assailants, when they were stormed by Major Adams, and during the rainy season, at which period they were thought strongest. But in reality they were of no strength at any time, and only served to make the garrison imagine themselves secure from attack, when the fact was exactly the reverse.—*(F. Buchanan, Rennell, Hodges, &c.)*

DISTRICT OF RUNGPOOR *(Rangapura)*.

This district occupies the north eastern extremity of Bengal, and is principally situated between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. To the north it has Bootan; on the south it has the district of Mymunsingh and the Garrow

mountains; to the east Assam and the Garrows; and on the west Dinagepoor. Its extreme length from the confines of Assam to the borders of Morung is 185 British miles, and its greatest breadth, which is from the limits of Rajshahy to the frontier of Bootan, 116 miles. The shape of this district is so exceedingly irregular as to bid defiance to description; but the main feature of its eccentricity is the deep sweep which the Cooch Bahar territory takes between its north western and its south eastern extremes, which can scarcely be exceeded in perplexity. The course of the Caratoya was, at the suggestion of Mr. Parr, made the general line of boundary between Rungpoor and Dinagepoor, and probably the channel which the river then followed was as good a common boundary as could have been fixed upon; but by this arrangement the limits of the two jurisdictions were far from being clearly defined, for the Caratoya is liable to change, according to the channel the main rush of the Teesta (which, notwithstanding its name, is never at rest) enters. In the present instance its course has varied very considerably since it was selected for the common boundary, and the frontier villages have consequently become intermixed. The head stations of the two districts have also been badly chosen, both with reference to their respective jurisdictions, and distance from each other. To the southward from Seebgunge, where the line of the Rungpoor boundary quits the Caratoya, to the site of the Currybarry tanna, the irregularity of division is extreme, which cannot fail to operate very materially to the prejudice of the general police of Rungpoor, as well as of the circumjacent districts. Besides these, Rungpoor labours under other peculiar local disadvantages, in the vast extent of its frontier, exposed to no less than five independent states (Nepaul, Bootan, Cooch Bahar, Assam, and the Garrows) from which it is separated, not by large rivers, lofty mountains, or any other natural landmarks, but by boundaries, for the most part, merely imaginary; and, as might be expected from such ill defined limits, the possession of the frontier tracts is every where contested.

According to Dr. Francis Buchanan, this district contains 7,400 square miles, distributed in the following proportions:

	Square miles.
Land occupied by rivers, tanks, and water courses . . .	901
Clay land, inundated during the wet season	37
Ditto, good free soil, ditto	1,633
Light sandy soil, ditto	720
Clay lands exempt from inundation and fit for the plough	128
	3,419

Brought forward	3,419
Red free soil exempt from inundation and fit for the plough	400
Ash-coloured good soil ditto	2,590
Ash-coloured light sandy soil ditto	573
Hills	418
Total	7,400

Since the survey by Major Rennell, the rivers of this district have undergone such changes, that there is great difficulty in tracing them. Their banks are in general low, and the inundation so far from raising the ground by a deposition of sediment, seems gradually to be sinking the rivers deeper and deeper below the level of the plains. The names of the principal rivers and streams, are the following, viz.—

The Brahmaputra,	Dhorla,	Sorbomangala,
Teesta,	Gudadhor,	Jamuni,
Mahananda,	Rutnayi,	Korla,
Caratoya,	Nagor,	Nilkumar,
Manas,	Ghoramana,	Grurango.
Chonkosh,		

In Rungpoor there are several jeels, and in the north eastern division five miles north from Jughigopa, a beautiful cluster of lakes, where in the wet season they are overwhelmed by the Brahmaputra. The heats of the spring are not so scorching and parching as towards the western quarter of the Bengal province, the hot winds being rarely experienced for more than eight or ten days to the west, and in the east are scarcely known. The soil differs considerably from that of Dinagepoor, to which it is generally inferior. Towards the east there is much free red soil, called rangamatty, which produces stately forests, much encumbered with enormous climbing plants, and by an undergrowth of reeds. Tanks are rare, the district not containing one of any magnitude. To the east of the rivers Brahmaputra and Chonkosh, the country is hilly, the ranges of hills seldom exceeding eight miles in length by two in breadth, nor (excluding the Garrow mountains) more than 1,200 feet in height. These ranges form no continued chain, being everywhere surrounded by low level lands, and during the rainy season nearly insulated. Shells in large quantities are burned into lime, both for the purposes of the indigo manufactures and for chewing with betel.

Bamboos are so abundant that 100 are sold for a rupee, and at Goalparah, although so remote from the sea coast, (250 miles,) the cocoa nut palms not only ripen their fruit, but yield it in abundance. Wheat is a considerable crop, but,

except at the capital, and in some of the principal families, the people not having the art of converting it into flour, boil it like rice. Barley is little cultivated, and maize almost unknown. The quantity of cotton cultivated is insignificant, although there be much waste land fit for it, nor is the sugar cane raised in any considerable quantity. The grand staple of the district is tobacco; and the betel leaf required for internal consumption is enormous. The poppy was formerly cultivated on government account, and the illicit cultivation, through the connivance of the native officers, still continues. Indigo is cultivated, but on account of the great moisture of the district, it is difficult to preserve the seed in good vegetating condition, but the whole cultivation is of no consequence to the general prosperity. Three species of profitable insects are reared by the farmers; the mulberry and ricinus silk worms, and the lac insect. All the implements necessary for a farm of one plough may here be purchased for 7*s.*; the cost of a sugar mill is 12*s.* 4*d.* and the total cost of working it about three guineas. Elephants are numerous throughout the two eastern divisions, and wherever there are extensive forests and thickets, the rhinoceros is not uncommon, and is quite harmless, injuring neither persons nor crops. The other remarkable animals are apes, monkies, black bears, and most enormous tigers.

The great farmers in Rungpoor are mostly Brahmins, Kayastas, and Mahommedans of some rank, and the leases may be said to be in perpetuity, or perhaps rather, that the occupants of the soil are the real proprietors, bound to pay a certain tax to government through the zemindar, and in most parts the rent is paid in monthly instalments fixed by the regulations. The landlords as yet appear to have no confidence in the promises of government, and consider the perpetual settlement as of no value, for they cannot believe it possible that the supreme authority should know of their receiving large sums of money, without immediately demanding a share. The manners of this class are generally very indifferent. Few, especially of the older families, ever visit each other, but live surrounded by dependants and flatterers, especially mendicant vagrants, who entertain them with marvellous stories. A great proportion of these miscreants is composed of men who pretend to have devoted their lives to religion, poverty and abstinence. Some families pretend to be of divine origin, others are descended from princes who have governed the country; but a great proportion of those who possess the most valuable lands are new men, who have purchased their estates at auction, among which number are the descendants of Canta Baboo, Mr. Hastings's dewan. The estates of the Boruya contain 470 square miles, yet pay only 3,000 rupees per annum to government.

All ranks in this district spin cotton thread, but a considerable part of the raw material is imported from the west of India by the way of Bogwangola and

Moorshedabad. The Company purchase most of the best sugar, the remainder is consumed on the spot. The natives have commenced the manufactory of indigo, after the European fashion, and in 1809 had 16 factories. The grain goes mostly to Serajegunge and Narraingunge, to which places paper is also sent. The opium is a contraband trade. The lac comes from Assam, and the wax mostly from the Nepaulese territories and Assam. A considerable quantity of salt after being miserably adulterated is exported to Assam, Bootan, and the Garrow country. The raw silk is mostly exported by the Company. English woollens are imported, chiefly for the Bootan market, but the demand is very inconsiderable. A little is also sent to Assam. The common currency is the kuldar rupee of Calcutta, and cowries, there being very little gold and no copper. In the eastern divisions napkins worth about 3*d.* and portions of salt, are also used for the purposes of change. There are here many old roads, attributed to Nilambar Raja, now become ruinous, and destitute of bridges, which, even of brick, cannot in this climate be expected to last more than twenty years. In 1809, the total exports of all descriptions were estimated at 36½ lacks of rupees, and the total imports at 14½ lacks.

The area of the district, which comprises an extent of 7,400 square miles, is subdivided into 25 police jurisdictions, comprehending an establishment of 399 Burkendauzes, and 25 Pykes. Of these, 22 tannas, or police stations, are established over 4,200 square miles of country west of the Chonkosh and Brahmaputra, and the remaining three in the tract lying east of these rivers. This improvident subdivision appears to have arisen from the original arrangement having been regulated by the extent of certain pergunnahs, and particular properties, rather than by a reference to the general features of the country, or peculiarities of situation. A reference to the account below, will shew how much the several police jurisdictions vary in extent and population.

	Square miles.	Estimated population.
Mahagunge	64	50,000 inhabitants.
Dhap	344	272,000
Phoorunbarry	180	6,600
Barny	172	92,000
Patgong	82	45,000
Fakeergunge	184	73,000
Beenacoonry	197	83,000
Boda	362	231,000
Dimla	195	94,000
Durwanny	228	142,000
Koonwurgunge	148	84,000

Mulung	153	82,000
Bogdooas	126	74,000
Beergunge	152	72,000
Sadoolapoor	163	147,000
Dewangunge	100	43,000
Bhowannygunge	355	157,000
Chilmary	198	75,000
Wuleepoor	287	169,000
Burrabarry	218	134,000
Nakasury	250	140,000
Dhubry	1,135	83,000
Rangamatty	1,780	93,000
Currybarry	869	unknown.

In many instances, a darogah of police with his myrmidons on scanty allowance, prove the scourge of the division over which he presides. A darogah here is only allowed 25 rupees per month, out of which he is to provide himself and family with food and raiment, suitable to the apparent respectability of his office, and pay the expense of a dozen journeys during the month into the interior of his jurisdiction. His establishment is only ten men, to preserve the peace of 400 square miles of country, and of these the west country Burkendauzes appear to have no other object in view, than to get rich as fast as they can by lending money at usurious interest, a pernicious practice to which they are all greatly addicted. The very barbarous state of the divisions east of the Chonkosh and Brahmaputra, the thinness of the population, and the great waste of a highly fertile soil, overrun with wilds and forests, and abandoned to the feræ naturæ, are evils highly to be regretted, nor does any more likely method of improving the condition of the country occur, than the establishing of a European officer at Goalparah, with a civil and criminal jurisdiction over these tracts, to whom the superintendance of the Garrow trade might also be delegated. The same functionary might conduct any trade or imposts that the government might think expedient to establish on the frontiers of Assam, while he would at the same time coerce the extortions of the native military detatchment stationed at Jughigopa. The other frontiers bordering on Morung and Bootan are infested by colonies of a wandering class of people named Keechuks or Geedarmars, who are robbers by birth, and who seldom rob without adding the crime of murder. In 1813, the magistrate succeeded in effecting the capture of a number of Keechuks in Nizamtara, a small fort across the Mahananda, which exploit frightened from the Bootan-border a large band of these merciless ruffians.

The total population of the Rungpoor district was by Dr. Francis Buchanan, after a laborious investigation, estimated as follows:—

Number of Mahommedans		1,536,000
Ditto of Hindoos		1,194,350
Ditto of Asuricks or infidels		4,650
	Total	2,735,000
And in the following proportions, viz.	Persons who do not work	343,000
	Artificers	326,000
	Cultivators	2,066,000
	Total	2,735,000

Including the whole district the estimate will give 370 to the square mile; but if it be divided into two portions, separated by the Chonkosh and Brahmaputra rivers, the eastern division will contain at the rate of nearly 60 persons to the square mile, while the western in the same extent will contain 570. The grand check to population in this district is disease, the natives being exceedingly unhealthy, and the children feeble, so that a large proportion of the infants die, even of those not in a state of indigence; and although for thirty years, food has never been so scarce as to approach to a famine, a large proportion of excellent land still remains unoccupied. The forest of Parbut Joyaur contains 360 square miles, yet this extensive tract is occupied by only 500 persons, and only 500 rupees of revenue is annually received from the proprietor. Among the domestics there are both male and female slaves, especially towards Assam, and everywhere along the northern frontier. The people of Assam sell many slaves, and those of Cooch Bahar are not unwilling to carry on the same trade. Rungpoor being a portion of Camroop (the Hindoo region of sensual love), public prostitution is extremely common in the district, where about 1,200 houses are occupied by females of that profession, who have assumed the organization of a regular society, with a priesthood adapted to their manner of life. In 295 houses, there were found to be 460 females, between the ages of 12 and 25 years, 218 advanced in life who acted as servants and superintendants; and the community also contained 39 old men, 35 youths, and 14 boys, all born of the sisterhood. These prostitutes, although mostly born of Mahommedan parents, affect Hindoo manners, on which account they abstain from all impure food, and before the age of puberty undergo the ceremony of marriage with a plantain tree.

In 1809, Dr. Francis Buchanan estimated the Mahommedans in the proportion of ten to nine Hindoos, and the faith of the former appeared to be daily gaining ground, owing to the number of converts expelled from their original castes.

The two religions are on the most friendly terms, and mutually apply to the deities or saints of the other, when they imagine that applications to their own will prove ineffectual. The great majority of the inhabitants do not appear to be intruders, but descendants from the original inhabitants. The whole number of Brahmins, at the period above mentioned, was about 6000 families, or one-forty-third of the whole Hindoo population. The number of people in Rungpoor, upon whom no sort of impression has been made by the Brahmins is very inconsiderable, and are included under the general term of Asuric, strictly signifying persons who have no god; that is to say, who worship God in a manner different from the Hindoos and Mahommedans. The most prevalent sect among the Brahmins is that of the Sacta, the followers of which rejecting the Purans, adopt as their chief guides the books called Tantras, which it is supposed were composed by the god Siva, for the instruction of his wife Parvati.

Under the Mogul government, Rungpoor was a military frontier station towards the Morung and Cooch Bahar, and was partially wrested from the raja of the latter district, during the reign of Shah Jehan, when it was formed into a circar; but it was completely conquered by the generals of Aurengzebe, in 1660-1, when it received the name of Fakerkoondy. It devolved to the British government along with the rest of the province in 1765, since which its condition has been gradually improving. In 1801, the annual revenues of Rungpoor including Cooch Bahar, amounted to 1,066,135 rupees; and in 1814 were 1,062,115 rupees, exclusive of Cooch Bahar, which was 62,722 rupees. The lands paying revenue to government were, in 1801, considered by the collector as better cultivated than those that were rent free. In this district there are the ruins of several ancient cities of great extent, such as Komotapoor, and the city of Prithee Raj in the division of Sanyasigotta. At present the principal towns are Rungpoor, Mungulhaut, Chilmary, and Goalparah.

The prevalence of gang robbery in 1813, in the police division of Boda, was attributed by the superintendant of police, to the activity of a body of Keechuks (wanderers, natives of Bootan), who had been sent from Nuddea to Rungpoor, to be marched over the frontier to their own country. These banditti were first apprehended in the Sunderbunds, where they were found possessed of a large quantity of property, and of many implements of a suspicious description. The total number, comprehending men, women, and children, amounted to between 2 and 300 persons, without any visible mode of obtaining an honest livelihood; and as they had been for many months wandering through the British provinces, it was deemed eligible, with a view to the security of the community, to have them conducted to their own reputed country. They were sent into Bootan, from whence they were supposed to have made incursions into Rung-

poor, where, having committed depredations, they retreated with their plunder beyond the frontier; but in 1813, as already related, the magistrate succeeded in capturing a number of them. In 1814, this functionary expressed his opinion that the murders committed on the other frontier by the Garrows, were solely occasioned by their desire to obtain human skulls; but the acquisition of these ornaments did not appear to be the only motive, as he also stated that these enormities had commenced after the sale of the pergunnah of Currybarry in 1809, subsequent to which the ejected proprietor had resided among the Garrow mountains.—*(F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Grant, J. Shakespear, Turner, &c.)*

TEESTA RIVER *(Tishta, standing still).*—The source of this river has never been explored, but according to Nepaulese reports, it rises in Tibet, whence, after opening a passage through the great Himalaya ridge, forming the boundary of the Chinese empire, it enters the mountainous country to the south, and before last war separated the dominions of the Gorkas, from those of the Deb Raja of Bootan. While proceeding from the hills, the Teesta falls down the precipices of a mountain, about 50 miles north of Jelpigory, and enters the Rungpoor district near its northern extremity, where it is bounded by the country of Sikkim, and has a channel 800 yards wide, containing at all seasons a great deal of water, with a quick stream broken by stones and rapids. South from the cataract, single logs of wood can be floated to within ten miles of the Bengal frontier, to which distance canoes can ascend. In the dry season, boats of 150 maunds can ascend to Paharpoor, near the frontiers of Sikkim; but during the rains, boats of 1000 maunds. This river, during its course through the British territories, receives the accession of many streams, and is subjected to frequent changes of name and channel, until it at last joins the Pudda, or great branch of the Ganges near Nabobgunge; after performing a course, including windings, of about 400 miles.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

KOROTOYA *(or Caratty).*—By the Nepaulese, this river is said to rise among the lower hills of Sikkim, at a place named Brahmacoond. After it enters the Bengal province, it forms part of the boundary between the districts of Rungpoor and Dinagepoor, losing and recovering its name several times, until it is at last swallowed up by the Teesta, which, although the smaller river, absorbs the name of the other, and communicates its own. In the rainy season it is navigable for boats of 400 maunds to Bhojonpoor, and considerable quantities of timber are floated down its stream.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

MANAS RIVER.—This small river is only remarkable as being the boundary of the British territories on the north eastern extremity of Bengal, where it separates them from the independent possessions of the Raja of Bijnee. In the

dry season it is navigable for boats of 50 or 60 maunds, as far as Bijnee, where the raja resides, but there is very little commerce carried on by its channel. It falls into the Brahmaputra at Jughigopa, opposite to Goalpara.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

RUNGPOOR.—Although this town is usually considered as the capital of the district, yet the magistrate does not reside within its bounds; nor are the court-house, jail, or other public buildings within its precincts; but it contains the collectors' office and the Company's factory. The town of Rungpoor may be considered as composed of four separate villages, much scattered and separated from each other, even by fields; it being only near the police office, that there is any appearance of a town. In 1809, the dwelling-houses were said to be 3000; the number of distinct roofs or buildings 10,000; and the population from 15 to 20,000 persons. Within the whole space there are 42 brick buildings, 10 warehouses or shops, 7 small Hindoo chapels, 3 public temples, 2 monuments of Mahommedan saints, and 6 mosques. This place is 260 travelling miles from Calcutta; the road indifferent, and intersected by an amazing number of rivers and water courses, which must be crossed in boats; yet, in a palanquin, the journey is with ease gone over in four days. Lat. 25° 43′ N. long. 89° 22′ E.

The public offices are situated at Dhap, where the Europeans reside; their houses extending along an excellent road, bordered on each side by a row of trees, presenting a very pleasing appearance in a country in other respects destitute of ornament. The number of houses are about 300.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

GUZGOTTA *(Gajacata, the Elephant Fort)*.—A small town in the Rungpoor district, 10 miles north from the capital, lat. 25° 50′ N. long. 89° 15′ E.

JALALGUNGE.—A small town in the Rungpoor district, 135 miles W. N. W. from Dacca, lat. 25° 30′ N. long. 89° 28′ E.

PATGONG *(Patragrama)*.—A town in the Rungpoor district, 38 miles N. N W. from the town of Rungpoor, lat. 26° 18′ N. long. 88° 55′ E.

SANYASIGOTTA *(Sannyasicata)*.—A division of the Rungpoor district, situated at the north western extremity, in the centre of which is a territory belonging to the Deb Raja of Bootan.

JELPESH.—Situated in latitude 26° 28′ N. long. 88° 45′ E. 60 miles N. N. W. from Rungpoor. At this place there is a noted Hindoo temple, erected by the Rajas of Cooch Bahar in honour of the god Siva, from whom the Cooch Bahar and Bykantpoor Rajas are fabulously said to be lineally descended.—*(Sisson, &c.)*

JELPIGORY.—A small town formerly fortified in the Rungpoor district, 65 miles N. N. W. from Rungpoor, lat. 26° 30′ N. long. 88° 25′ E.

MANGULHAUT *(Mangala hata, a Flourishing Market)*.—A considerable trading town in the Rungpoor district, 20 miles N. from the capital, lat. 25° 59′ N. long.

89° 20′ E. This place is situated on the south side of the river Durlah, which separates Rungpoor from Cooch Bahar. The houses are uncommonly good, the streets spacious, and the whole town has a very superior appearance when compared with those of the vicinity. On the river are numerous boats of great burthen. Coarse cotton goods are the staple commodity, and this town furnishes a considerable part of the return cargo, which is carried by the Bootan caravan annually from Rungpoor.—*(Turner, &c.)*

KOMOTAPOOR.—A town, or rather the ruins of one, in the district of Rungpoor, situated on the west bank of the Durlah river, which from the vastness of the masses, and the extent of surface they cover, must have been built by some prince who could command the labour of an extensive or populous tract of country. They were explored and are described by Dr. Francis Buchanan in his manuscript report to the Bengal government.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

CHILMARRY *(Chalamari)*.—This town stands on the banks of the great Brahmaputra river, about 130 miles N. by W. from Dacca, lat. 25° 25′ N. long. 88° 42′ E. It is a place of considerable resort, and contains about 400 houses; but it is principally remarkable from its vicinity to Varuni Chur, a sand bank in the river, where Hindoo pilgrims in great numbers assemble at a certain festival, and as is customary on these occasions, much commercial business is transacted. In ordinary years about 60,000 are said to meet, but the numbers increase to 100,000 when the festival happens on a Wednesday, when people come even from Benares and Juggernauth.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

RANGAMATTY *(Rangamati, coloured clay)*.—A subdivision of the Rungpoor district, of which it occupies the north eastern extremity. During the Mogul government, this tract was comprehended within the jurisdiction of Rungpoor, in which it still continues. It stretches on both sides of the Brahmaputra easterly to the confines of Assam, throughout a wild and little cultivated region, in 1784, estimated to contain 2629 square miles, many parts of which were, and still are, capable of being rendered extremely productive; but at present they yield little to the sovereign, except a few elephants, and these of a bad quality, annually caught in the interior and boundary forests. Rangamatty is intersected by the Brahmaputra, and contains the territorial subdivisions of Mechpara, Howeraghaut, Bijnee (within the British territories), and the great forest of Parbut Joyaur.—*(J. Grant, &c.)*

RANGAMATTY.—Situated in latitude 26° 9′ N. long. 90° E. 52 miles N. E. from the town of Rungpoor. Fifty years ago, this place is said to have contained 1500 houses, several of which were inhabited by Mogul chiefs, and others by Portugueze. At present, its condition is very miserable, exhibiting only 250 scattered huts, and of public buildings the vestiges of a fort and mosque. From

the town to the forest of Parbut Joyaur, some traces of habitations may be observed, with many fruit trees scattered through the forest. The police office for this division is at Goalpara.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

GOALPARA *(Govalpara)*.—This town stands on the south side of the Brahmaputra, about 23 miles from the frontiers of Assam, and 170 N. by E. from the city of Dacca. Lat. 26° 8′ N. long. 90° 38′ E. Goalpara contains some good thatch houses and a street of shops; which, in this remote and barbarous region, excite great admiration among the rude tribes in its vicinity. The number of houses that may be considered as belonging to the town, amount to about 400; most of them miserable huts, and except a few, regularly surrounded by the floods for above two months in the year, so that the only passage from house to house is in boats; and inside, the floors are covered from 1 to 3 feet deep with water. In other respects also, this place exhibits a squalid scene of vice and misery. Goalpara is, notwithstanding, a town of considerable resort, and the principal mart of the intercourse with the Assamese, who bring here coarse cloths, stick lac, tar, wax, and occasionally gold, for barter. Salt is the article they usually take in return, but it is delivered to them much adulterated. Neither is this traffic so considerable as might have been expected, owing to the disorderly state of the Assam country, and savage manners of the chiefs, who frequently settle unadjusted accounts by the assassination of their creditors. Goalpara has been repeatedly transferred from one European trader to another, and at last sold to a Kengiya merchant. In 1809, the estate was under the management of the collector, the owner being a minor, and yielded about 2500 rupees per annum.

There are a few families of native Portugueze scattered over the Rungpoor district, but at Goalpara there are as many as twenty. Here they are termed Choldar, which seems to be a corruption of soldier. None of them can either read or write: only two or three know a few words of Portugueze, and they have entirely adopted the dress of the natives. The only European customs they retain are, that the women courtesy, and the men shew by the motion of the hand as they pass, that they would take off their hat if they had one. Notwithstanding the want of this distinguished covering, the men retain some portion of European activity, and are much feared by the natives, who employ them as messengers in making a demand, such as the payment of a debt, to a compliance with which they think a little fear may contribute. The females gain a subsistence chiefly by sewing and distilling spirituous liquors, of which last article the men consume as much as they can afford, and retail the remainder. Concerning the Christian religion, they appear to know little or nothing, nor have they any priest. Sometimes they go to Bowal, near Dacca, in order to procure

a priest to marry them; but in general this is too expensive, and they content themselves with the public acknowledgment of their marriages.

In 1810, Mr. Robert Kyd, a master builder of Calcutta, was deputed by the government to the Goalpara forests, for the purpose of collecting specimens of the timber reported to be produced in these woods, which being situated in the vicinity of the Brahmaputra, the timber could be floated down to Calcutta at all seasons of the year. Mr. Kyd accordingly proceeded to that quarter of the province, and cut down various logs, which, however, did not reach the presidency until December 1811, when they were lodged in the mast yard of Messrs. Kyd and Co. who were instructed to record their opinion of their quality and properties. In 1813, it was found that several of the specimens had already decayed, probably owing to their having been felled at an improper season, and to their not having undergone the process of having the sap trimmed off; and with respect to the others, no satisfactory decision has as yet been come to. The durability of timber is known greatly to depend upon its being felled when full grown, and also after being first sapped, simultaneously with the fall of the leaf; but from the want of time and convenient opportunity, the specimens above alluded to had not the advantage of a regular process, having been mostly selected and felled from the size and appearance of the trees as they stood in the forest; and even after a new wood has been introduced into general use, it requires a series of years and experiments to establish its character for durability.—*(F. Buchanan, Public MS. documents, &c.)*

JUGIGHOPA.—This place stands on the north side of the Brahmaputra, nearly opposite to Goalpara, at the extremity of the British dominions in the north-eastern quarter of Bengal. Lat. 26° 12′ N. long. 90° 35′ E. The town contains only 150 huts and a few shops, but greatly surpasses any other collection of habitations, there being no place in the vicinity that deserves the name of town, or even village. Bamboos and timber are procured in great plenty from the neighbouring forests. Near the village of Tokor there is a remarkable hill, consisting of a vast mass of granite, much rent, from the crevices of which fine trees spring up. At the beautiful lakes named Toborong, north of Jugighopa, there is a considerable fishery, where about 1,400 maunds (80lbs. each) of fish are annually procured and dried for sale, of which the Bijnee Raja takes half as his due. To restrain the neighbouring wild and more than semi-barbarous tribes, a small military detachment under an European officer is usually stationed here.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

MEASPARA *(Mechpara)*.—A segment of the Rungpoor district, extending along the south side of the Brahmaputra river, about the 26th degree of north latitude. The Mech tribe, from whom the tract derives its name, appears to

have been once more numerous than they are at present, and to have undergone great changes, at least in this territory they have wholly disappeared, and are supposed to have assumed the more elevated title of Rajbungsies. A few families of Mech, who, according to Brahminical ideas, continue to wallow in the mire of impurity, frequent the borders of the Rungpoor district, towards the frontier of Bootan and Nepaul, but the tribe forms a chief part of the population in all the tract of country between Cooch Bahar and the mountains; especially near Dellamcotta and Luckidwar. In 1809, Mechpara still contained about 300 Garrow families; this tribe having been greatly encroached on by the inhabitants of the plains, and pushed off among the mountains. The compensation to be granted to the proprietor of the pergunnah for the abolition of the sayer, or variable imposts, in 1812, was 677 rupees, on a jumma, or assessment of 2,651 rupees, leaving a future annual land-tax, payable to government by the zemindar, of only 1,974 rupees.—*(F. Buchanan, Public MS. documents, &c.)*

THE PRINCIPALITY OF COOCH BAHAR *(Cuch Vihar)*.

This western division of the ancient kingdom of Camroop, comprehended the whole northern tracts from the Chonkosh river to the Mahananda, and from Goraghaut to the mountains of Bootan, extending in length about 90 miles from N. W. to S. E., and 60 miles from N. E. to S. W. The modern territory of Cooch Bahar forms the boundary of a large portion of the Rungpoor district, and is partitioned into sections and divisions in a very confused manner. The following are the names of the principal:

Chucklah Futtehpoor; the pergunnahs of Pangga, Bishgiri, Patgong and Tapa, Bashoti, Kankiya, Harjyerhat; Chucklah Parbobhag, Boda, and Battrishazary or Bykantpoor. That portion of the possessions of the Raja of Cooch Bahar, situated beyond the limits of the province of Bengal, is commonly known by the name of Tannah Bahar. The northern extremity of this territory was settled on Siva Singh, of a family from which the Rajas were obliged to choose their prime ministers. This portion, as producing an income of 32,000 rupees per annum, was called Battrishazary, but the general name given to the whole principality was Bahar, and to distinguish it from the large province of which Patna is the capital, the term Cooch has been added, although particularly disagreeable to its princes, who having in modern times set up for Rajbungsies, wish to sink all remembrance of the Cooch tribe. The nature of the country is entirely the same with that of the adjacent parts of the British dominions, and the management of the Rajas estates beyond the frontier, entirely resembles that pursued in the estates which belong to the Raja as a zemindar of Bengal. The commerce between the two territories is on a very

good footing, there being no restraint whatever; but opium is cultivated to so large an extent that it evidently is intended for contraband purposes. The southern portion of Cooch Bahar lying along the river Durlah, is a highly improved and fertile country; but to the north of the town of Bahar, the country has a most miserable appearance, the land being low and marshy, interspersed with thick jungle and many nullahs. The vegetation is coarse, and the ground everywhere almost choaked up with rank grass, reeds, and ferns. In 1784, the total territorial area was calculated at 1,302 square miles.

Bykantpoor to Battrishazary, although a part has been alienated to Bootan, is still a very fine estate, and contains two whole police divisions of Fakeergunge and Sanyasigotta, and has been added to Bengal since the acquisition of the Dewanny in 1765. The proprietors assert that they are descended from the god Siva, on which account the members of the family assume the title of Deb, and return no salute made to them by whatever rank. The Cooch tribe still compose by far the greater portion of the original inhabitants of Camroop, and one class of that tribe, the Pani-cooch, which has not adopted the Brahminical religion, still preserves a language which is totally different from the Bengalese. By the latter they are often confounded with the Garrows. The early priesthood of the Cooch tribe were named Kolitas, who maintained great influence over their rude flocks, until the introduction of the Brahmins, who were adopted as sacred instructors by the principal chiefs, since which period the Kolitas have mostly adopted the Hindoo religion, and rank as pure Sudras; yet both they and their chiefs occasionally revert to their old tenets, and return to the guidance of the unconverted members of the ancient priesthood. The converted Kolitas adhere to Krishna, and have of late been very successful, especially in Assam, where they have not only converted the sovereigns of the country, but also many ignorant tribes of Rabkas, Garrows, and Mech. The lower classes in the north are so extremely indigent, that some years ago it was their custom to dispose of their children for slaves without scruple, and although this traffic has been suppressed, and provisions are cheap compared with other districts, yet the poverty and wretchedness of a great proportion of the population are extreme.

When the Mahommedans conquered this division they appear to have rendered the office of zemindar hereditary. Some of the estates continue to be managed by the Raja, some by branches of the family, while others continue to be held by the descendants of different officers, on condition of the performance of certain duties. In the whole of Cooch Bahar the maximum of rent fixed by the settlement is much higher than what the proprietors exact from their tenants, which arises partly from their desire of keeping a low

rental, lest a new assessment should be made, while they trust for their own profit to private contributions. The high rate of the maximum strengthens their hands, as they can at any time compel a tenant to quit his farm, or pay the maximum, no leases being granted except to new settlers, and these only give the tenant a right of perpetual possession according to the regulated assessment. Formerly the Raja's family resided at Bykantpoor, where there was little cultivation, scattered among the woods, while all the more southerly part of the district was overgrown with reeds and bushes, encouraged as a defence against the Mahommedans. On the decay of the Mogul power, Dharma Pal left Bykantpoor and settled at Jelpigory, and began to clear the woods of the south, which are now cultivated, while the spots among the woods which were formerly cultivated are now neglected, and returning to a state of nature. The rents are very low, probably owing to the vicinity of the Bootan and Nepaulese territories, where there is much waste land, and a large proportion of the tenants are constantly changing from the one to the other. Among the rude tribes the hoe cultivation, which is a marked distinction, still subsists, and with this implement it is supposed a man and his wife can cultivate as much land, as a man with a plough and two oxen, being about five acres.

The reigning prince, named Harindra, is said to be the 17th in succession of the present family, but the early history of the country is much involved in fable. In 1582, Abul Fazel describes the chief of Cooch as a powerful sovereign, having Camroop and Assam under his subjection, and able to bring into the field 1000 horse and 100,000 foot. According to the testimony of Mahommedan historians, during the reign of Acber, about A. D. 1595, Lukshmen Narrain, the Raja of Cooch Bahar was the sovereign of a territory bounded on the east by the river Brahmaputra, on the south by Goraghaut, on the west by Tirhoot, and on the north by the mountains of Tibet and Assam. His army they exaggerated to the number of 100,000 infantry, 4000 cavalry, 700 elephants, and 1000 war. boats. Notwithstanding this enormous military force, he voluntarily became a vassal to the Emperor Acber, which offending his subjects and chief men, they rebelled against him, and compelled him to request assistance from the Mogul Governor of Bengal, which was readily granted, as it afforded an opportunity of exploring this region, with a view to its future subjugation. This happened in 1661, when it was conquered by Meer Jumla, who, in compliment to his sovereign, changed the name of its capital to Alumgeernuggur, which it did not long retain. Mahommedan fanaticism being then in its perfection, he destroyed the Hindoo temples, broke in pieces a celebrated image of Narayan (Vishnu), and converted the son

of the Raja, who was on bad terms with his father. In every other respect he administered strict justice to his new subjects, and severely punished plunderers and other offenders. Having completed the conquest, and settled the tribute of Cooch Bahar (which then comprehended a large tract of country) at ten lacks of rupees annually, he proceeded to attempt the conquest of Assam, where he failed. During these wars the Cooch princes are supposed to have erected the line of fortification along the southern frontier, which still remains; but, like all similar structures, it proved an ineffectual protection.

Along with the rest of Bengal this district devolved to the East India Company in 1765, but was little noticed until 1772, when the Cooch Raja applied to the collector of Rungpoor for assistance against the Bootanners, who had reduced him to the last extremity, and offered, through his minister Nazir Deo, to pay an annual tribute of half his revenue, and to render his country again subordinate to Bengal. In deliberating on this offer, the peace and security of the adjacent British territories were more to be considered, than any pecuniary advantage to be derived from the new acquisition, as prior to this period the Rungpoor district had been much exposed to incursions from Bootan. It became therefore a matter of direct interest to embrace any opportunity that offered of expelling these marauders, and confining them within the limits of their own mountains. Under this impression the proposals of Nazir Deo were agreed to, and Captain John Jones was ordered to proceed with 4 companies of sepoys and 2 pieces of cannon, which expedition he conducted with much skill, defeating Dorpo Deb a rebel and emissary of Bootan, and capturing the town of Bahar by assault, thereby greatly intimidating the Bootanners, who fled on all sides to the hills, where Captain Jones followed them in 1773, and took the fortress of Dellamcotta; on which event the Bootan Raja, alarmed for his own safety, applied to the Teshoo Lama of Tibet, and obtained a peace through his mediation. In arranging the conditions great favour was shewn to the Bootanners, probably with the view of gaining their friendship, and obtaining commercial advantages, which were never realized.

In 1787, great confusion and rebellion agitated this petty state, which led the Bengal government to institute an inquiry into the causes of these commotions, and also relative to the existing condition of the territory. A commissioner was in consequence deputed in 1789, to take upon himself the exclusive superintendance of the Raja's estates, to collect the revenues, pay the annual tribute, and after defraying the current expenditure, retain the surplus for the Raja's benefit. The latter, then a minor, was at the same time informed, that the British government, in assuming the temporary management of his affairs, did not intend either to increase his tribute, or to deprive him of the rights and pri-

vileges guaranteed by the treaty of 1772, the objects of their interference being to preserve himself and country from the artifices and peculations of ignorant and designing men. On due consideration of the wretched condition of the country, the incapacity of the Ranny mother, and the universal corruption of her dependants, the interposition of the superior government became absolutely necessary to restore good order, standing as the Raja did in the relation of a feudatory; and as a limited interference would have rendered the deputation of no avail, it was determined to vest the commissioner with full powers, and he was also particularly instructed to attend to the education of the young Raja, with the view of qualifying him for the management of his own affairs. Under this arrangement the Cooch Bahar territories continued until 1801, when the Raja having attained his majority, the office of commissioner was abolished, and the transaction of revenue matters committed to the collector of Rungpoor. During the above period of time strict tranquillity prevailed, the revenues were collected with regularity, and the property of the state so effectually preserved from the rapacity of its own servants, that after defraying the public expenses on the most liberal scale, a large sum was accumulated, and, for the benefit of the Raja, invested at interest in the Bengal funds.

A very different picture was exhibited when the commissioner was withdrawn. During the Raja's minority, the government had entertained hopes, that by study and application to business he would have qualified himself for executing the duties of so important a charge; but these expectations were disappointed, for to a natural or acquired imbecility, the Raja added a most violent and outrageous temper, where he could not be resisted, nor did he ever allow the miseries his subjects suffered to interfere with or disturb the low and childish pleasures to which he was addicted. Had the mischief been confined to the Raja's own territories, a cold and unfeeling policy might perhaps have suggested, that it was not incumbent on the British government to interpose in the affairs of a state which had been recognized to a certain degree as independent. The effects, however, of the above evils were felt within the limits of the British districts, banditti and other disturbers of the public peace frequently committing robbery and other outrages, and then seeking a secure asylum for themselves and plunder, within the boundaries of Cooch Bahar. Besides this, so far from any surplus revenue being realized, it was with the utmost difficulty the different instalments of the tribute due to Bengal could be liquidated; and while the Raja had scarcely the means of subsistence, his revenue and public officers were amassing fortunes by embezzlement and extortion.

The Bengal government was fully sensible of the evils which were like to arise, from leaving the administration of affairs exclusively to the Raja; but was averse,

on the principles of good faith, to assume the internal management of Cooch Bahar without the acquiescence of the Raja. Under these circumstances an officer was deputed for the purpose of communicating with the Raja, and of endeavouring to obtain his consent to the introduction of the Bengal revenue and judicial regulations, with such modifications as local circumstances and the rank of the Raja might suggest; but all his efforts to procure the Raja's consent to the change were without avail, and he was in consequence withdrawn. Another was deputed in 1805, with the like bad success, the Raja manifesting the utmost repugnance to the proposed arrangements, while his miserable subjects upbraided the British government as partners in his oppressions. All interference, however, further than remonstrance, was abstained from, until 1813, when the anarchy of this state had attained such a height, that it was no longer possible to go on. As experience had proved, that all prospect of reforming the administration of the Raja through the medium of the collector of Rungpoor was entirely hopeless, it became indispensably necessary to recreate the office of commissioner, nearly on the footing of 1805. The Governor-General also addressed the Raja, remonstrating strongly with him on the neglect of his public duties, and of his insulting and contumacious conduct towards the officers appointed to negociate with him. In addition to these acts of insubordination, the Raja had the folly to withhold payment of the customary tribute, and not only to misappropriate the allowance fixed for the family of Nazir Deo, but also to usurp the lands allotted for their residence, and for that of Dewan Deo. In these commotions one of the latter's dependants was murdered, when the Raja, instead of facilitating the apprehension of the perpetrators, opposed every obstacle to the prosecution of the inquiry.

Whatever doubts may exist, regarding the rights mutually understood by the contracting parties, to have been conveyed to the British government by the words of the third article of the treaty of 1772, as far as relates to the Raja's independence within the limits of internal jurisdiction, the general tenour of that treaty placed Cooch Bahar in a state of absolute dependence on the British power, and the reservation of the moiety of the revenues for the Raja was subjected to the condition of his continuing firm in his allegiance to the East India Company. The Raja's general conduct having been utterly inconsistent with the duties of subjection and allegiance, he might be considered as having violated his engagements, and consequently forfeited his rights of territorial sovereignty by disregarding the conditions under which they were recognized. But as it would have been too severe to carry the punishment to extremity, it was determined to limit the interference in the interior administration merely to the degree which might be necessary to preclude the recurrence of any acts of gross outrage or oppression. In furtherance of this object, he was ordered to dismiss

his Dewan and Moonshee, the appointment in future of the first mentioned officer being subjected to the approval of the Governor-General. To the proposal for the introduction of a system of criminal jurisprudence to be administered in his name through the agency of the commissioner, the Raja gave a conditional assent, and the requests he made in consequence were deemed free from objection. The amount of tribute paid to the Bengal government in 1814 was 62,722 rupees.—*(F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Turner, J. Grant, Stewart, Pierard, &c. &c.)*

BEYHAR *(Vihar)*.—The modern residence of the Cooch Bahar Rajas. Lat. 26° 18′ N. long. 89° 22′ E. 32 miles N. from Rungpoor.

THE DISTRICT OF DINAGEPOOR *(Dinajpur)*.

The district of Dinagepoor is situated principally between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by Rungpoor and Purneah; on the south by Rajshahy and Mymunsingh; to the east it has Rungpoor and Mymunsingh; and to the west Purneah and Boglipoor. Its greatest length from the southern extremity to the northern is 105 miles, and its greatest breadth 82 miles; having a triangular form with the acute angle to the north. This district was formerly named Circar Pinjerah; and, according to Major Rennell's measurement in 1784, contained 3,519 square miles; but the present district is much more extensive, and when surveyed in 1808, by Dr. Francis Buchanan, contained about 5,374 square miles, distributed nearly in the following proportions, viz.—

Rivers, tanks, marshes, and water courses, &c.	353
Inundated in the rainy season	381
Red clay	38
Light coloured clay	2,441
Free soil	2,161
Total	5,374

The western boundary is well defined, being separated from the division of Purneah by the rivers Nagar and Mahananda, to the junction of the latter with the Punabhoba; but its boundary on the south towards Rajshahy is complicated and uncertain. On the east Dinagepoor is separated from Rungpoor by a river usually called the Caratty or Korotoya; but to the north its limits are less distinctly marked, although tolerably straight. During the Mogul government, Dinagepoor, along with Edracpoor, constituted the territorial jurisdiction of Aurungabad, and was originally a frontier towards the independent principality of Cooch Bahar, on which account it was little known and lightly assessed.

Dinagepoor is everywhere intersected by rivers, which during the rainy season admit of large boats to every division, and of small ones to most villages; but owing to the changes that have taken place since Major Rennell's survey, their actual channels are but ill represented in his maps. The names of the principal rivers are:—

The Mahananda	The Tanggon	The Teesta
Punabhoba	Jamuna	Gabura, and
Atreyi	Korotoya	Dhepa.

There are no lakes, properly so called, although during the rainy season some of the rivers swell out so as to resemble very large ones. The deserted channels of considerable rivers also contain large quantities of stagnant water, always in the rainy season, and sometimes even during the parching heats of spring, and have a resemblance to lakes; added to which there are many permanent marshes, and a multitude of unnecessary tanks choked up with noxious plants and rank vegetation.

The rainy season usually begins about the 12th of June, is accompanied with much thunder and ends nearly about the 14th of October. The rain most commonly comes from the east; but towards the end of the wet monsoon, there are frequently light southerly winds, which increase the heat, and the nights become very suffocating. In favourable seasons there ought to be one or two days of heavy rain, between the middle of October and middle of December, and if these fail, the crop of rice is scanty. From the 12th of March to the 12th of May, there are usually strong winds from the west, attended by thunder, rain, and frequently hail of an enormous size, resembling round lumps of ice. The westerly winds usually blow cool, pleasant, and dry, with a clear sky from the middle of February to the middle of March, which is undoubtedly the finest time of the year. During November, December, January, and February, the cold is at times troublesome, and the Europeans have fire in their chambers, and wear woollen garments. But the natives, who are not so well provided, lament and shiver all night, and in the morning continue helpless and benumbed, both in body and mind, until reinvigorated by the rays of the sun.

The soil of this district is considerably diversified, and the face of the country of a waving appearance, being divided into small vallies, each two or three miles broad. These vallies are watered by small rivers, which in the rainy season swell into large lakes 50 or 60 miles in length, and two or three in breadth, overflowing all the low lands, which are dry in the cold season. These vallies, at the distance of 50 or 60 miles from the Ganges, are scarcely higher than the surface of its waters; when, therefore, the river is swollen by periodical rains, the waters of the vallies are not only prevented from running off, but are so much

increased, as to be navigable for vessels of considerable burthen. The soil of the elevated portions of land is in general a stiff clay; in some places black and porous, in others white and tenacious. The soil of some of the vallies resembles that of the elevated parts, and that of the others is rich and loamy, with a substratum of the same kind of clay which forms the higher grounds. These low lands are for the most part covered with long grass of different sorts, and afford pasture to a great many buffaloes, and large herds of other cattle; the northern parts of the district are more level than the southern ones, have a loamy soil and are well cultivated. Although there is no elevation in the whole district that approaches to a mountain, yet the face of the country is not so level as in many other divisions of the Bengal province. Some portions rise to a considerable height, especially a long ridge extending north from the town of Dinagepoor to Contanagur, and also a considerable elevation north east of Nullagola; both of which are probably 100 feet above the level of the inundated country.

The higher lands in the south of the district are inhabited by Mahommedans, and the lower by Hindoos. On the higher lands very little besides rice is produced, and except in very small spots, which are well manured, only one crop in the year. The loamy vallies which do not lie so low as to be endangered by the inundation, produce not only rice, but also a good crop of mustard or pulse, in the cold season. All the coarse kinds of rice, and all the winter rice that is to be exported, is cleaned by boiling. A quantity is put into a pot with some cold water and boiled for an hour, after which it is dried and beaten; and the facility with which this is done, and the little waste in cleaning, more than compensate for the expense of fuel; but it is not lawful for a Brahmin to use this kind of rice. The inhabitants of Dinagepoor are in general extremely indigent, and their farming implements are therefore proportionally simple and miserable. The plough is of a wretched description, and has neither coulter to cut the soil, nor mould-board to turn it over; only one person attends it, holding the handle in one hand, and occasionally pulling the tails of the oxen with the other. A pair of these sacred and unhappy creatures may be purchased for six or eight rupees, a plough for 1*s.* 3*d.* sterling, and a yoke for 7*d.* In the dry season it is often necessary to water the fields, which is done with a sort of trough 12 or 16 feet long. The natives have no spade, and the hoe is so constructed as to admit of their sitting while at work. Rice is the staple commodity of the country, of which four kinds, including several varieties, are principally cultivated.

The next article of importance is indigo, for which many parts of the division are improper, as it will not grow in the white clay lands, is sparingly produced in the black and red clays, and as most of the soft and loamy parts lie so low as to be subject to sudden inundations, which would destroy the crop. In 1808,

the extent of land under the indigo weed was about 15,000 Calcutta begahs, allowing 700 for each set of works, of which there were twenty-one. The value of the plant produced at 2½ rupees per begah was about 37,500 rupees. Either too much or too little sun, and either too much or too little rain, will entirely ruin the crop. Sugar is also raised but not in large quantities. A begah or ⅓ of an acre of good land is reckoned to produce 13,891 lbs. of cane, or 1,159 lbs. of pot extract, and of cake extract 952 lbs. Many sorts of fibrous plants for cordage and sackcloth are sown in April, May, and June; the phaseolus mungo, and mustard seed, are also raised. Hemp is principally cultivated on account of its buds, which are used by the natives for the purposes of intoxication. Flax, although abundantly cultivated in the central parts of Bengal, for its use in making oil, is but little cultivated in Dinagepoor, where the natives make no use of it for the purposes of thread. The kind of wheat raised in this quarter of the province is bad, and the flower produced of so dark a colour, that it is little saleable to Europeans. Several sorts of pulse are sown at the commencement of the cold season, such as kesari (lathyrus sativa), the mashuri (ervum lens), and the boot (cicer arietinum). Tobacco is cultivated to a considerable extent in low and loamy lands.

The breed of oxen here is extremely degenerate, and not only many of the Mahommedans, but even many low tribes of Hindoos, use the cow in the plough, which according to the strict usages of Brahminical nations ought to be punished with death. Notwithstanding the prevailing numbers of the followers of the Arabian prophet in this district, tame swine are more numerous than sheep, and are eaten by the lower classes of Hindoos. The breed of horses, or rather ponies, is of the most wretched description, but their cost is moderate, being only from 4*s*. 6*d*. to 11*s*. 6*d*. each. Slaves are very few, and were mostly purchased during the great famine of 1769, and the scarcity of 1787, to keep them from starving; but they turned out so idle and careless, that their labour was found much more expensive than that of hired labourers. The elephant and rhinoceros can scarcely be said to be known, and tigers are comparatively not numerous; but large flocks of wild buffaloes and hogs infest the fields, and prove extremely destructive to the farmer. Six weeks after the rainy season commences every rice field, although quite dry and hard in the spring, abounds with small fishes, whose appearance is so sudden, that the natives assert they have fallen from the clouds along with the rain.

The bamboo is the most common and useful woody plant, and it is with this substance that the Dinagepoor mats, so celebrated all over Bengal for the superiority of the material, are fabricated. In most other parts they are made of reeds. The picking and cleaning of cotton is performed by the women, and the

preparation of cotton thread occupies the leisure hours of all the females of the higher ranks (even Brahminies) and of the greater part of the farmers' wives; but the raw material is mostly imported. The women free the cotton from the seed with the common handmill, then beat it with the bow, and afterwards spin it with a small miserable wheel turned with the hand. Sackcloth is also a considerable manufacture, much worn by the lower classes, and also used for rice and sugar bags. Most of the Bengal salt comes from Narraingunge, and the Coromandel salt from Calcutta; both greatly adulterated. Although some native houses trade in this country to a great extent, the East India Company must still be considered as the chief merchants, and much eagerness is evinced by the natives to deal with their agents. Many small merchants, with capitals of from 2000 to 25,000 rupees, reside in this district, and export rice, sugar, molasses, extract of sugar cane, oil, tobacco; and import salt, cocoa nuts, the metals and spices. Another class of small merchants, who mostly profess to have dedicated themselves entirely to religion, and who are called Gosains, purchase large quantities of silk and cotton cloths, and import chintzes, carpets, and Patna blankets. The following are the names of the principal towns:—

	Houses.		Houses.
Dinagepoor, containing about	5000	Bhusi . .	250
Malda . . .	3000	Chintamon .	200
Gour	3000	Ayigar . .	200
Raygunge . . .	1000	Ghuggudanga .	190
Ghoraghaut . . .	500	Soukol . .	150
Sibgunge . . .	300		

From a consideration of the agriculture of this district, it appeared to Dr. Francis Buchanan that 480,000 ploughs were required, and one man is the usual allowance to each plough. The men employed, therefore, in actual agriculture cannot be less than 480,000, which multiplied by five, would give 2,400,000, to which may be added one fourth of the number for all the other classes of society, making 3,000,000 of persons for the total population, or about 558 persons to the square mile. An estimate formed from the quantity of produce would give a still greater number. With all this enormous population, there is much waste land, and a general complaint of the scarcity of workmen. There are scarcely any emigrations, and early marriages universal, yet the inhabitants are a weakly puny race, and far from having numerous families. The grand check here to excess of population is disease, more from the want of a stimulating diet and comfortable dwellings and clothing, than from any settled malignity of the climate.

In most parts of the district, the leases granted to tenants are equivalent to a

perpetuity; but this does not appear practically either to have bettered the condition of the peasant, as compared with other districts, or to have improved the cultivation of the soil; and, what is remarkable, notwithstanding their right of perpetuity, they are constantly migrating from one estate to another. The greater part of the landlords are new men, who have recently purchased their estates, and who were formerly either merchants, manufacturers, agents of landholders, or native officers of government. The old zemindars are either sunk in miserable superstition, the prey of religious mendicants, or are totally abandoned to sottish and stupifying dissipation. The evils resulting from the endless subdivisions of estates are also severely felt here. In 1801, the collector was of opinion, that the cultivation of the district since the decennial settlement had greatly increased, and that the rent-free tracts were the best cultivated. The zemindar's profit he estimated at 20 per cent. on the amount of the jumma or land assessment to the revenue, which in 1814 was 1,766,373 rupees, and the abkarry or excise on spirituous liquors, 10,117 rupees. Contrary to what is seen in most parts of Hindostan, the Mahommedans are here the prevalent sect, being estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 7 to 3 Hindoos; who, he is inclined to think, were at one time almost entirely extirpated; most of the existing ones being the offspring of new comers. In 1808, the following was nearly the respective proportions:

Mahommedans	2,100,000
Hindoos	900,000
	3,000,000

Of the Hindoo population, 440,000 are of Bengalese origin, viz.

Pure tribes	70,000
Impure tribes	370,000
Total	440,000
Very low castes (below impure)	150,000
Abominable	210,000
Total	360,000

Up to 1808, Christianity had made but very little progress in this district, nor are there any native Portugueze.

Ever since the cession of this district along with the rest of the province in 1765, it has been greatly infested by dacoits or gang robbers, partly owing to the numerous rivers by which it is intersected, and partly to the dastardly spirit for which the inhabitants have long been noted. In 1814, however, a considerable improvement took place, in consequence of the pains taken by Mr. Sisson

to ensure the co-operation of the landholders, and to impress the inhabitants with a sense of their ability to resist the atrocious acts of these depredators. In the first half year, the whole of the offenders in five cases of gang robbery were brought to justice; and it appeared in several instances, that the robbers had been resisted and even seized in the fact by the villagers; on which occasion they were liberally and publicly rewarded. Two instances of gang robbery, attended with murder and torture, occurred in 1814, but these were perpetrated by large gangs composed of Keechuks, Nepaulese, and inhabitants of Bootan. Some reform, in another respect, appears wanting; as, according to Mr. Sisson, the main road from Dinagepoor to Moorshedabad, which at one time was thickly set with villages, has been entirely deserted by the inhabitants, through fear of the sepoys passing to and from that city. In 1814, a night watch was also established in the different villages of the district, planned and introduced by Mr. Sisson, composed of the villagers, who took it by turns, which operated with considerable effect in reducing the number of gang robberies and burglaries. But, notwithstanding these advantages, it was found experimentally to be a great hardship on the labouring classes, especially in small villages, where the turn of watching occurred too often; besides which, subsequent to the seizure of any criminal, they were called on for evidence, and compelled to quit their homes and occupations without recompense; which annoyances occurred exactly in proportion to their activity and vigilance as watchmen. During the years 1813 and 1814, the periodical rains failed, and with them the rice crops, creating a scarcity nearly amounting to a famine, and thereby compelling the poorer classes to commit burglaries for the purpose of obtaining a small pittance of food.—*(F. Buchanan, Carey, Oswald, C. Smith, J. Shakespear, &c. &c.)*

DINAGEPOOR.—The capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 25° 37′ N. long. 88° 43′ E. 102 miles N. N. E. from Moorshedabad. This town consists of four portions; viz. Dinagepoor Proper, Rajgunge, Kangchon Ghaut, and Paharpoor. The houses, or rather dwellings, for many contain ten huts, are estimated at about 5000, and the total population of all descriptions, about 30,000. The roads are kept in excellent repair by the convicts, and the town, externally, has a clean and neat appearance; but it is badly supplied with water, nor does it contain any public building of the slightest consideration. The rajah's house was of great size, but has gone to ruin since the decay of the family: it was built in 1780, and exhibits a strange mixture of European, Moorish, and Hindoo styles, all in the worst taste, nor is much better displayed in the architecture of the houses erected by the European portion of the inhabitants.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

BYDELL.—A town and small pergunnah, which, although surrounded by the

district of Dinagepoor, yet was formerly under the jurisdiction of that of Purneah. Lat. 25° 32′ N. long. 88° 10′ E. 95 miles N. from Moorshedabad.

RAYGUNGE.—This is the most considerable mart in the district of Dinagepoor, although it has arisen since 1780. The streets are narrow, dirty, and confused, but it is a place of great bustle, and crowded with boatmen and drivers of oxen, of which last the inhabitants allege 5000 loaded arrive daily. In 1808, it contained 300 dwellings and about 700 huts.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

CONTANAGUR *(Cantanágara)*.—This was formerly a town of some note, as is indicated by the remains of mounds and ramparts still to be seen, but it is at present only remarkable as containing one of the finest Hindoo temples extant in Bengal, where most of these edifices are of a very inferior construction. Lat. 25° 44′ N. long. 88° 43′ E. 112 miles N. by E. from Moorshedabad.

BHOWANNIPOOR.—A town, or rather market place, in the district of Dinagepoor, situated in the division of Ranny Sonkol. At the festival of Nekmurdun (a Mahommedan saint), a great meeting is held here, from about the 7th to the 17th of April. A military guard and civil officers attend to preserve peace, for the multitude is great, and consists mostly of rogues, thieves, prostitutes, musicians, jugglers, showmen, and religious mendicants; to whom may be added idlers, pilgrims, and traders from Bootan, Nepaul, Purneah, Benares, Patna, Moorshedabad, Rungpoor, and various other places. About 3000 ponies, partly from Bootan, and partly from the west country, and from one to 2000 carriage oxen, are usually sold at this fair, where there is also exposed for sale almost every kind of commodity, especially those of a more valuable description, such as broad cloth, silks, fine muslins, shawls, hardware, trinkets, spices, musk, Tibet cow tails, and gold dust. It is said that the business done amounts to between three and four lacks of rupees, and that about 100,000 persons attend. —*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

GHORAGHAUT.—A town and zemindary in the district of Dinagepoor, 90 miles N. E. of Moorshedabad, lat. 25° 13′ N. long. 89° 10′ E. This small territory is also named Idracpoor, and anciently formed part of the division of Aurungabad. In 1784, it contained 632 square miles, and was held by a zemindar of the khayst caste of Hindoos. In 1582, Abul Fazel describes it as producing raw silk, gunnies (sackcloth), and plenty of Tanyan horses. This zemindary, with many others in the eastern quarter of Bengal, at a very early period of the conquest, was bestowed on different Afghan chiefs, who colonized in them and received accessions of their countrymen from abroad. Being zealous converters of the Hindoos in their neighbourhood, and not very scrupulous as to the means, a very considerable proportion of the inhabitants of this remote corner to this day profess the Mahommedan religion, and

dignify themselves with the Arabian title of Sheikh. In process of time the Ghoraghaut zemindary was seized on by the Kakeshelan tribe of Moguls; but for many years past it has reverted to its prior owners, the Hindoos. From the traces of ruins still visible, the town of Ghoraghaut appears at one period to have covered a great space, but it is now almost restored to the state in which it probably existed before the Mussulmaun conquest, being sunk in woods and jungles, with tigers prowling about the streets. It is still, however, a native town of some note, and contains about 500 families, who carry on a good deal of trade. The most remarkable monument is the tomb of Ismail Ghazi Khan, (a holy man, and good officer, who first subdued this tract of country), which is much feared and respected both by Hindoos and Mahommedans, and, although nearly ruinous, has still a small canopy hung over it. All the other public buildings and mosques have long gone to ruin.—*(F. Buchanan; J. Grant, Stewart, &c.)*

MALDA *(Malada)*.—This is the second town in the Dinagepoor district, and independent of Nawabgunge, which may be considered as a suburb occupied by boatmen, contains about 3000 houses, of which seven-eighths are built with brick and stones from the ruins of Gour. The town is miserably huddled together along the side of the Mahananda, and during the rainy season is nearly insulated, owing to which the streets are remarkably narrow, seldom exceeding six feet in breadth. The improvements made in Europe in the arts of dying and weaving, have greatly injured the trade of this place, where many of the largest houses have become ruinous, among which number are the French and Dutch factories; and the whole country for 12 miles to the north of the town is a desert, although possessing an excellent soil. This place stands on a river which communicates with the Ganges, from which the town is not far distant, and has long been famous for its manufactures of silk and cotton. The Malda mangoes have also a high reputation, and may be considered as one of the finest fruits in the world, but few of these actually grow at Malda, all the plantations of the most valuable kind being on the opposite side of the Mahananda, in the Purneah district. In some parts of the Dinagepoor district the produce is of little value, for a large portion of the mangoes, when allowed to ripen on the tree, contain an insect (curculio) that renders them useless. The natives usually attribute an abundance of the insect to the soil or climate; but it is probably the quality of the fruit, it being remarked that some trees always escape in the worst districts; but on this subject great uncertainty prevails. *(F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

GOUR *(Gaur)*.—The ruins of Gour (the name of the ancient capital of Bengal, and at one period of the province,) are situated in the district of Dinage-

poor, a few miles to the south of the town of Malda, and are now mostly overwhelmed with reeds, and the trees of old fruit gardens become wild, and intermixed with palms. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Jennetabad is a very ancient city, and was once the capital of Bengal. Formerly it was called Lucknowty (Lakshmanavati), and sometimes Gour. The present name, Jennetabad, was given it by the late Emperor Humayoon. Here is a fine fort, to the east of which is a fine lake, called Chutteah Putteah, in which are many islands."

The ruins of this town extend along the banks of the old Ganges, and probably occupy a space of 20 square miles, which, as Indian cities are usually built, would not contain any very enormous population. Several villages now stand on its site, and eight market places, sufficiently contiguous to form a town, have been estimated to contain 3000 houses, many of which are of brick, procured from the debris of the ancient city. Some progress has also been made in bringing the surface under cultivation, but the undertaking is much impeded by the great number of dirty tanks, swarming with alligators, musquetoes, and all sorts of vermin, and choked up with pestilential vapours. The soil is of extraordinary fertility, and well suited for the mangoe and mulberry. The principal ruins are a mosque built of a black stone, called by former visitors marble; but Dr. Francis Buchanan considered it to be the black horn blende, or indurated potstone, as he could not discover one piece of marble, either of the calcareous or of the harder kind. The bricks, which are of a most solid composition, have been sold and carried away to Malda, and the neighbouring towns on the Mahananda; and even Moorshedabad has been supplied with bricks from this mass. The situation of Gour is nearly central to the populous part of Bengal and Bahar, and not far from the junction of the principal rivers which form the excellent inland navigation. Lying to the east of the Ganges, it was secured against any sudden invasion from the only quarter whence hostile operations might be apprehended. No part of the site of ancient Gour is nearer to the present bank of the Ganges than four miles and a half, and some parts which were originally washed by that river, are now twelve miles from it. A small stream that runs past it communicates with its west side, and is navigable during the rainy season. On the east side, and in some places within two miles, it has the Mahanuddy river, which is always navigable, and communicates with the Ganges.

The name of Gour is apparently derived from Gur, which both in the ancient and modern languages of India, signifies raw sugar; and from the Sanscrit term for manufactured sugar (sarcara) are derived the Persian, Greek, Latin, and modern European names of the cane and its produce. Gaura, or as it is com-

monly called Bengalese, is the language spoken in the country of which the ancient city of Gour was the capital, and still prevails in all the districts of Bengal, excepting some tracts on the frontier; but it is spoken in the greatest purity throughout the eastern or Dacca division of the province. Although Gaura be the name of Bengal, yet the Brahmins who bear that appellation are not inhabitants of Bengal, but of Upper Hindostan. They reside chiefly in the province of Delhi, while the Brahmins of Bengal are avowed colonists from Kanoje.

When Mahommed Bukhtyar Khillijee conquered Bengal in A. D. 1204, Gour was then a place of vast extent, and being selected by the commander for his chief station, soon attained a still greater magnitude. The last Hindoo sovereign, named Raja Lakshmanyah, held his court at Nuddea, until expelled by the followers of the new religion. On the establishment of a Mahommedan dynasty, independent of Delhi, the seat of government was transferred to Purruah, on which event Gour appears to have suffered indiscriminate dilapidation. In 1535, the Emperor Humayoon, when in pursuit of Shere Khan, the Patan, (by whom he was afterwards expelled) took Gour, then described as the capital of Bengal. Ferishta says, that the seat of government was afterwards removed to Taunda, or Tangra, a few miles higher up, since which period, although the city does not appear ever to have sustained any signal calamity, it progressively declined to its present state of desolation.—*(F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Rennell, Col. Colebrooke, Stewart, &c. &c.)*

PURRUAH *(or Peruya)*.—A town, or rather ruins of one, in the district of Dinagepoor, 12 miles north from the ancient ruins of Gour, lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 88° 14′ E. In A. D. 1353, this was a royal residence, the capital of Ilyas, the second independent sovereign of Bengal, at which time it was besieged and taken by the Emperor Feroze. During the reign of Raja Causa, a Hindoo monarch of Bengal, who died in 1392, the city was much extended, and the Brahminical religion flourished;—but Purruah was in its turn deserted, for on his son's becoming a convert to the Mahommedan faith, he removed the seat of government back again to Gour.—*(Stewart, Rennell, &c.)*

TANDAH *(or Tarrah)*.—A town in the Dinagepoor district, adjacent to the ancient ruins of Gour, lat. 24° 49′ N. long. 88° 15′ E. In A. D. 1564, Soliman Shah, one of the Bengal sovereigns of the Shere Shah dynasty, made this place his capital, esteeming its situation more healthy than that of Gour. In 1660, Sultan Shujah was defeated near Tandah, by Meer Jumla, the general of his brother Aurengzebe. There is little remaining of this place except the rampart, and owing to the surrounding swamps, it has never been considered healthy by Europeans.—*(Stewart, Rennell, &c.)*

APPOLE.—A town in the Dinagepoor district, 80 miles, N. N. E. from Moorshedabad, lat. 25° 9′ N. long. 88° 59′ E.

BUXYGUNGE *(Bakshiganj).*—A town in the Dinagepoor district, 84 miles N. N. E. from Moorshedabad, lat. 25° 15′ N. long. 88° 56′ E.

CONCHON *(Canchana, golden).*—A town in the Dinagepoor district, 63 miles N. by E. from Moorshedabad, lat. 25° 1′ N. long. 88° 42′ E.

SEEBGUNGE *(Sivaganj).*—A town in the Dinagepoor district, 84 miles N. N. E. from Moorshedabad, lat. 25° 3′ N. long. 89° 12′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF PURNEAH *(Purinya.)*

The territory which forms the jurisdiction of the judge and magistrate of Purneah, is situated principally in the north-eastern quarter of Bengal, but it comprehends also a portion of the Mogul province of Bahar. On the north it is bounded by the Morung hills and woods; on the south by Boglipoor and Rajshahy; to the east it has Dinagepoor, and to the west Boglipoor and Tirhoot. Its greatest length is 155 miles, and its greatest breadth about 98; the total superficial contents 6340 square miles, distributed, according to Dr. Francis Buchanan, nearly in the following proportions, viz.

Rivers, tanks, marshes, and water courses		495
Clay	Liable to be flooded.	1,090
Good free soil	Liable to be flooded.	1,605
Light sandy soil	Liable to be flooded.	111
Clay lands		296
Ash-coloured free soil		2,110
Light sandy soil		633
	Total square miles	6,340

The form of the district is tolerably compact, but at the south-east corner it stretches out into a narrow wing, where it is intermixed with Rajshahy and Boglipoor. Previous to the late war, the whole northern frontier also, which confined on the territories of the Nepaulese, was very ill defined, and occasioned many disputes between the two powers. The subdivisions into police departments are likewise intermixed, and of very unequal sizes. In 1784, the square contents of Purneah were only estimated at 5,119 miles; but since then, besides a section from the Bahar province, it has been enlarged by the incorporation of a large portion of the Morung. In the northern corner of the district, towards the Mahananda, are a few small hillocks of earth, and at Manihari, near the banks of the Ganges, there is a conical peak of about 100 feet in elevation; but generally speaking the district may be described as

a flat country, gradually sinking as it approaches the Ganges. The inundated land occupies nearly one half of the whole, and, where the soil is good, is tolerably well cultivated. In one small portion near Manihari, the naked calcareous stone is exposed on the surface, and is the only rock in the district.

Since Major Rennell composed his Bengal Atlas, great changes have taken place in the rivers of Purneah, so that the maps are little applicable to their present state. Their nomenclature also among the natives is to the last degree perplexed and inaccurate, scarcely two persons giving the same name to a river, or to the mart upon its banks. The names of the principal are:—

The Cosi,	The Bhakra,	The Punabhoba,
Mahananda,	Lohandara,	Ichamati, and
Conki or kankayi,	Sudhano,	Kalendi.
Ratoya,		

The lakes and morasses, formed by the channels of old rivers which have lost all connexion with their stream, are as numerous as in Rungpoor, but much more shallow. The most remarkable marshes form a long chain passing with some interruptions from Gondwara to Malda, and seem to be a congeries of broken narrow channels, winding among low lands, which have probably at one period been the channel of a great river. Near the largest streams the soil of the inundated lands undergoes rapid changes; the same field one year is overwhelmed with sand, and next year covered with a rich and fertile mud; but on the whole the lands watered by the Mahananda and its branches are by far the richest, while those watered by the Cosi, especially towards the north and east, are rather poor and sandy. The lands exempted from inundation are partly clay, partly free soil, and partly sandy. In favourable seasons the high lands of a mixed good soil are very productive of all kinds of grain, especially cruciform plants resembling mustard, which are reared for oil, and are the staple commodity of the district.

In every part of Purneah the cold of winter is greater than either in Rungpoor or Dinagepoor, and when strong westerly winds blow during that season for two or three successive days, hoar frost is found in the mornings, which occasionally is so extreme as to injure some crops, especially the pulse. In spring the hot winds from the west are usually of longer duration than in Dinagepoor; but towards the Morung frontier they are little known. The prevailing winds are north in winter, and south in the rainy season. From March to June the winds incline to the west, and from August to December easterly winds predominate. The violent squalls of the spring come as often from the east and north east, as they do from the north west; the rainy season is of shorter duration than further east, and earthquakes, but not violent ones, are common.

This district having many advantages of soil and climate, has always been considered one of the most productive in the province. Rice and other grains for food are raised in large quantities, but plants reared for oil, although greatly inferior in aggregate value, are the great object of commerce, and the source from which the rents are mostly paid. In 1810, the European potatoe, owing to the exertions of Mr. Smith, a merchant of Nathpoor, had come into general use among the natives, who use them, however, principally as a seasoning. Of the plants used for dyeing indigo is the most important. Besides those belonging to British subjects, the Hindoos and native Portugueze in 1810 had seven factories, and about 350 acres were cultivated for the native manufacturers of the district. Cattle here are an important article of stock, and it is from hence that Bengal is supplied with a great proportion of the carriage bullocks; but the fine cattle used in the Bengal artillery, are not bred in this district, although usually termed Purneah bullocks, being from further west. The Company's cattle are allowed a certain quantity of grain per day, which they do not always receive, but when kept up and fed for slaughter actually surpass the best English beef. The herds of cattle and buffaloes are here so numerous, that all the resources of the country would be unequal to their support, were it not for the adjacent wilds of the Morung. The natives of Purneah are almost entirely supplied with butter by the buffaloe, and a considerable quantity of ghee, or buffaloe's butter clarified, is also exported. The rice was formerly mostly sent to Moorshedabad and its vicinity, but latterly, it has mostly gone to Patna, where also some fine wheat is sent, most of the latter, however, still goes to Moorshedabad. The indigo of European manufacture is sent to Calcutta for exportation. Betel nut and coco nuts are imported from the more southern districts, and iron and copper mostly from the northern hills. The cotton wool is all brought from the west of India, by the route of Mirzapoor, Caunpoor, and Patna. The northern part of the district, bordering on the Morung, is thinly inhabited, and covered with immense woods of saul and other timber, which during the rains are floated down the rivers to the building yards at Calcutta. The cloth made entirely of silk goes partly to the Company's factories, and is partly exported by private merchants. The cloth made of cotton and silk mixed is mostly exported by religious mendicants (Gossains) to the west of India. The quantity of English broad cloth used is a mere trifle. The sugar comes from Dinagepoor, Tirhoot, and Patna. The district on the whole is very well provided with water carriage, and the natives possess a great variety of boats adapted to different purposes. Within the whole district there are reckoned to be 482 market places, but the following are the principal towns, viz.

	Houses.		Houses.
Purneah, containing about	6,000	Caligunge	700
Nautpoor	1,400	Kootubgunge	600
Kusbah	1,400	Mahadebpoor	600
Dhamdaha	1,300	Kishengunge	500
Matauli	1,000	Syefgunge	400
Khantaghur	700		

In 1789, Mr. Suetonius Grant Heatly, then collector of Purneah, computed the number of villages at 5,800, from which he inferred a population of 1,200,000 souls. In 1801, Mr. W. E. Rees reported the number of villages to be 7,056, and the estimated total population 1,450,000. Dr. Francis Buchanan was of opinion, that during the forty years prior to A. D. 1810, the population of Purneah had nearly doubled, and his computation, the result of a much more laborious investigation than either of the previous ones, exhibits a total population of 2,904,380 persons, in the proportion of 43 Mahommedans to 57 Hindoos. Of these last more than half consider themselves as still belonging to foreign nations, either from the west or south, although few of them have any tradition concerning the era of their migration, and others have not any knowledge of the country from whence they came. Comprehended in the above population are various classes of slaves; of which one class costs from £1. 15*s.* to £2. 5*s.*; in another class a youth costs from £1. 8*s.* to £2. 5*s.* and a girl of eight years from 11*s.* to £1. 15*s.* They are allowed to marry and their children become slaves; but the family are seldom sold separately. One class of slaves are by far the most comfortable description of labouring people, and are seldom sold by their owners although they possess the power. In 1810, the houses of bad fame were 470. There were formerly a few mud forts on the Morung frontier, but these are now in ruins. At Jellalghur, ten miles from the town of Purneah, there is a brick fort built by the Nabob Syef Khan, of about 300 feet square, having circular bastions at each angle, and a parapet wall pierced with loopholes for musquetry; but the most remarkable antiquity is the line of fortification, extending through the north west course of the district for about 20 miles, and named Majurni Khata.

In 1801, the reports of the public functionaries in Purneah concurred in stating, that the cultivation, commerce and population had considerably increased since the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual; but that very extensive tracts still remained unproductive. In 1810, the total produce of the arable lands was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 21,000,000 rupees; the total exports of every description whatever, 5,543,000 rupees; and the total imports, 2,038,000 rupees. In 1802, the number of rent-free tenures in the division that had been

registered, amounted to 16,546, which number was then thought by the collector to be only one-eighth of the whole existing within its limits. These free estates have been granted under a variety of pretexts, but the owner is not obliged to apply them to their original purposes, and may alienate them whenever he chuses. Contrary to what is the case in Dinagepoor, these rent-free, or rather tax-free, lands, although let at a lower rate per annum than those subject to the revenue assessment, are the best cultivated, and the zemindars in general derive a much greater profit than ten per cent. on the amount of their jumma, the total of which in 1814 was 1,035,789 rupees, and the abkarry or excise on spirituous liquors, 37,476 rupees. In this district, the nature of the farms is very much affected by the rank of the tenants. All the high and pure tribes, such as Brahmins, Rajpoots, Kayasthas, Seids, Patans and Moguls, have a right to occupy whatever land they require for their gardens and houses free of rent, and the same indulgence is granted to men of both religions who pretend that they are dedicated to worship, such as Bairaggies, Sannyassies, Vishnuvies and Fakeers.

Although the Mahommedans are in proportion fewer than in Dinagepoor, they have more influence, much more of the land being in their possession, and the manners of the capital town being almost entirely Mahommedan, and the faith apparently gaining ground. Except artists, all the other Mahommedans call themselves Sheikh, as deriving their origin from Arabia, but a great majority are not to be distinguished from the neighbouring Hindoo peasantry. The principal Mahommedans keep tutors for their children, and many of the Hindoos have their children educated at Benares. In 1810, there were about twelve families of native Christians, who are called Portugueze, and who are chiefly employed as writers. A Protestant missionary then resided in the south east corner of the district, but no intelligence has been received regarding the number of his converts.

By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows: "Circar Poorneah, containing 9 mahals; revenue, 6,408,793 dams. This circar furnishes 100 cavalry and 5000 infantry." During the Mogul domination this was a frontier military province, under the rule of a foujdar, subordinate to the soubahdar, or viceroy, but exercising a high jurisdiction both civil and military. Syef Khan is the most famous of these provincial rulers, and governed until his death in the Bengal year 1159, under the successive vice-royalties of Jaffier, Shuja, and Aliverdi Khan. In 1139, he extended by conquest the limits of his province beyond the Cosa, and in A. D. 1738, added a considerable portion of productive territory on the side of Morung. He was succeeded by Soulet Jung, on whose death the foujdary was usurped by Shouket Jung, or Khadim Hossein Khan, but this rebellion was easily quashed, and terminated in the death of the pre-

tender. When Lord Clive acquired the dewanny in 1765, the foujdary of Purneah was occupied by Raja Suchit Ray, the 16th foujdar; the 17th was Razi ud Deen; the 18th, Mahommed Ali Khan, who was succeeded by an English magistrate, Mr. Ducarel.

Before and since the acquisition of this territory, the most prevalent crime within its limits has been that of gang robbery, frequently attended with murder; but in 1814 the superintendant of police was decidedly of opinion, that these atrocities had experienced a considerable reduction. The number of offences of this description in 1812 amounted to 81; in 1813 to 35; and in the first six months of 1814 to only ten. Much good had resulted from the establishment of a chain of police stations along the frontier, the officers at which were instructed to pursue offenders into the adjacent province of Morung, belonging to the Gorkhas of Nepaul. The burglaries reported in 1813 amounted to 836, more than double the number perpetrated during the preceding year, and exceeding the number stated to have been perpetrated in any other district of the Bengal province. In 1815, the continued unhealthiness of the towns of Purneah and Dinagepoor left little doubt that the necessity of removing the civil authorities to more salubrious stations would ultimately be considered unavoidable, and it appeared desirable that the measure should be effected before the construction of new jails, or the repairs of the public buildings commenced. All expenditure for these objects was in consequence suspended, and the government endeavoured to obtain the most accurate information of the causes of the insalubrity which prevailed to so dreadful an extent in these towns, with the view of forming a final decision on this highly important question. Prior to the above date, the acting magistrate had recommended the removal of the head station to Jellalghur, which he described as elevated, open, and at a distance from jungle, while the walls of the old fortress might be turned to account in the construction of a safe and commodious jail.—*(F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Colebrooke, Thornhill, Rees, &c. &c. &c.)*

Cosi River *(Kausiki)*.—This river has its source in the Nepaul hills, not far from the city of Catmandoo, from whence it flows in a south easterly direction to near Chattra on the lower range of hills, where it winds more to the south, and descends by several cataracts, or rather violent rapids, towards the British district of Purneah, which it enters 20 miles north from Nauthpoor, by a channel two miles wide; but, except in the height of the rains, almost filled with sand banks and islands, the latter covered with tamarisks and coarse grass. In the cold season, most of the space between the islands becomes dry sand, but there are always streams accessible to boats of 4 or 500 maunds, but in spring before the rise begins, boats of large dimensions cannot pass, owing to the want

of sufficient water. Being also near to the mountains, the Cosi is very subject to sudden risings and fallings, and in summer the water even so low as Nauthpoor retains a considerable degree of coolness. One of its contributary streams, the Arun, is supposed to rise north of the great Himalaya ridge, and to penetrate between its snowy peaks. After entering Bengal, the course of the main trunk of the Cosi is nearly due south, in which direction it flows until it joins the Ganges, having performed a journey of about 300 miles.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

CONKI.—This is the most considerable mountain stream between the Teesta and the Cosi, and is said to have its source close to mountains covered with perpetual snow, if it does not actually penetrate from Tibet. It enters Bengal in the district of Purneah, where it joins the Mahananda, after which its name disappears. In the rainy season it can be ascended by small water boats to a considerable distance, and is found very useful for the floating down of timber.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

PURNEAH.—The capital of the preceding district, situated in lat. 25° 45′ N. long. 88° 23′ E. 125 miles N. W. by N. from Moorshedabad. This town, which occupies a space of nine square miles, equal to more than the half of London, contains only 40,000 inhabitants, scattered over this great extent, and might rather be described as an assemblage of villages than a single town. Within these limits there were in 1810, one hundred dwelling houses and 70 shops built entirely or in part of brick, and 200 that were roofed with tiles; besides which there were ten private places of worship for Mahommedans, and five for Hindoos. The most compact part of the town is the east of the Saongri river, and consists of one wide and tolerably straight street, decently built and tiled, and reaching about half a mile from east to west. On the opposite side of the Saongri is Maharajegunge, a large but poor suburb, which extends south to Rambaugh, an arid sandy plain, on which the houses of the Europeans have been built, and where the courts of justice and jail are situated, both very mean buildings, and the latter little calculated to obstruct the convicts should they wish to change their abode, which in general a great majority have no inclination to do. As frequently happens in India, this station has been for many years deteriorating in point of salubrity, without any perceptible cause for the alteration, and in 1815, had become so destructive to all classes, that the Bengal government considered a removal of the civil authorities to some other station unavoidable.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

ALLYGUNGE *(Aliganj)*.—A town in the Purneah district, 40 miles N. N. E. from the town of Purneah. Lat. 26° 16′ N. long. 87° 38′ E.

MAHRAJEGUNGE *(Maha Raja Ganj)*.—A small town in the Purneah district, 30 miles N. E. from the town of Purneah. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 87° 57′ E.

HALDUBARY.—A town in the province of Bengal, district of Purneah, situated on the east side of the Mahananda river, 55 miles N. E. from Purneah. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 87° 59′ E. The pergunnah, or rather estate in which this place is situated, is one of the largest in Purneah, containing about 500,000 acres, besides a portion of Dinagepoor. During the reign of Acber it was but a small territory, the greater part of which belonged to the Booteas of Sikkim, and being overspread with jungle was much frequented by thieves. In this condition it remained, until Seid Khan, a stranger, obtained possession, and the Booteas, proving troublesome, were driven to the mountains, and a fortress erected at Haldubary; but the family fixed their residence at Khagra, near to the chief fortress, which the Booteas had built.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

TAUJEPOOR.—A town in the Purneah district, 36 miles E. by N. from the town of Purneah. Lat. 25° 45′ long. 88° 15′ E.

NAUTHPOOR.—This place during the floods is situated on the side of the Cosi river, but in the dry season very extensive banks intervene between it and the navigable stream, so that goods must be carried on carts to and from the boats at Dimiya ghaut, about five miles from Sahebgunge, where the principal merchants reside. The town of Nauthpoor is situated in lat. 26° 17′ N. long. 87° 3′ E. and consists of the following market places; viz. Nauthpoor, containing 480 houses; Rampoor 435; Rajgunge 300; and Hanumangunge 400: total 1,215 houses. By the exertions of Mr. Smith, (a merchant who was settled here in 1810,) the town was greatly improved, the streets widened and straightened, the communications cleared, and much jungle cut down. Mr. Smith also induced workmen in brick to come from Nepaul, where they are more skilled in building, as living almost entirely in brick houses, and several of the natives were persuaded to erect brick dwellings. At Sahebgunge there is a good Hindoo temple, dedicated to Hanumaun, the gigantic monkey, who was prime minister to Rama, the great emperor of India, but it has not, however, obtained much celebrity.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

GONDWARA.—A town in the Purneah district, 20 S. by W. from the town of Purneah. Lat. 25° 33′ N. long. 87° 26′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF BAHAR.

(VIHAR, A MONASTERY OF BUDDHISTS.)

THIS large province is situated principally between the 22d and the 27th degrees of north latitude. Until the recent conquests of 1815, it was separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a range of hills and a woody low country; on the south it has the ancient and barbarous Hindoo province of Gundwana; to the east it is bounded by the province of Bengal; and on the west by Allahabad, Oude, and Gundwana. The river Caramnassa was the old line of separation between the Bahar and Benares territories. The space comprehended within these limits is one of the most fertile, highly cultivated, and populous of Hindostan, in proportion to its extent of plain arable ground, which may be computed at 26,000 square miles, divided naturally into two equal portions of territory north and south of the Ganges, which runs here an easterly course of 200 miles.

One of these divisions extends northerly 70 miles, to the forests of Nepaul and Morung; is separated from Goracpoor in Oude, on the west, by the Gunduck, and a crooked line between that river and the Goggrah. This northern division is bounded on the east by Purneah in Bengal, the whole area being one uninterrupted flat, which was subdivided by the Emperor Acber into four districts, viz. Tirhoot, Hajypoor, Sarun, with Chumparun or Bettiah, including four pergunnahs from Monghir.

The central division of Bahar extends south of the Ganges 60 miles, to that range of hills called in Sanscrit Vindhya-chil, which separates the lower plains from the territory above the ghauts. It is divided on the west from Chunar in Allahabad by the river Caramnassa; and from Bengal, on the east, by a branch of the southern hills, extending to the pass of Telliaghurry on the confines of Rajamahal. The district named Bahar, which is in the middle of this central tract, occupies about one half of the whole level area, the plains of Monghir one-sixth more, the rest being mountainous. Rhotas, the most south western district, lies chiefly between the rivers Sone and Caramnassa; the remaining district Shahabad extending along the south side of the Ganges. This central division, on account of the superiority of the soil and climate, particularly of opium, yields nearly two-thirds of the total annual produce. Exclusive of these

two divisions, there is a straggling hilly country of 8,000 square miles, which produces but little.

Still further to the south there is a third and elevated region, containing 18,000 square miles, though proportionably of inconsiderable value. The highland includes the modern subdivisions of Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor; bounded on the west by the Soubah of Allahabad, by Gundwana and Orissa, and on the east by Bengal. This last division is geographically termed the three Bellads or Cantons, and is also sometimes described, under the appellation of Kokerah, but more commonly Nagpoor, from the diamond mines it contains, or is supposed to contain. The following were the superficial contents of the province in 1784:—

	Square miles.
The assessed lands of eight districts containing . . .	26,287
The lands belonging to Palamow, Ramghur, and Chuta Nagpoor	18,553
Portion of hilly country in Monghir, Rhotas, &c. . . .	7,133
Total	51,973

In the institutes of Acber, compiled by Abul Fazel, A. D. 1582, this province is described as follows:

"The length of Bahar from Gurher to Rhotas is 120 coss, and the breadth from Tirhoot to the northern mountains includes 110 coss. It is bounded on the east by Bengal, has Allahabad and Oude to the west, and on the north and south are large mountains. The principal rivers of this soubah are the Ganges and the Sone. The river Gunduck comes from the north, and empties itself into the Ganges at Hajypoor. The summer months here are very hot, but the winter is temperate. The rains continue for six months. In the district of Monghir is raised a stone wall, extending from the Ganges to the mountains, and the wall is considered to be the boundary between Bengal and Bahar. This soubah contains seven districts; viz. Bahar, Monghir, Chumparan, Hajypoor, Sarun, Tirhoot, and Rhotas. These are subdivided into 199 pergunnahs; the gross amount of the revenue is 5,547,985 sicca rupees. It furnishes 11,415 cavalry, 449,350 infantry, and 100 boats."

The province of Bahar possesses great natural advantages, a temperate climate, high and fertile soil, well watered, productive of the drier grains, and all the luxuries required by the more active inhabitants of the north. Its geographical position, also, is central, having easy communications internally, and serving as a thoroughfare for the commerce of Bengal, and of foreign maritime countries, with the provinces of Upper Hindostan. These advantages brought Bahar into a high state of prosperity before the Patan conquest, and which has continued

without interruption amidst all its political vicissitudes. In Bahar Proper, and the districts contiguous to it, a parching wind from the westward prevails during a large portion of the hot season. It blows with great strength during the day, but is commonly succeeded at night by a cool breeze in an opposite direction. Sometimes it ceases for days or weeks, giving way to easterly gales. Beyond the limits of the Bahar district to the west, the parching winds are still more prevalent; refreshing breezes, or cooling showers of rain and hail, more rare. During the cold season a blighting frost is sometimes experienced in the Bahar and Benares provinces.

Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have always greatly flourished in this province. Opium may be considered as its peculiar produce, and the staple commodity of the country; saltpetre is principally manufactured in the divisions of Hajypoor and Sarun. Cotton cloths for exportation are manufactured everywhere, in addition to which, are the ordinary productions of grain, sugar, indigo, oil, betel leaf, and a variety of flower essences, especially of roses. Like the greater part of Upper Hindostan, Bahar was formerly supplied with salt from the lake of Sambher in Rajpootana, but its inhabitants now consume the Bengal salt, with a portion of that imported from the coast of Coromandel.

The manufacture of saltpetre scarcely passes the eastern limits of Bahar. It is a practical remark that the production of nitre is greatest during the prevalence of the hot winds, which are perhaps essential to its formation. These parching winds from the west did not formerly extend beyond the eastern limits of Bahar, but by the change of seasons, which have been remarked within these 30 years, the hot winds have extended their influence to Bengal Proper. Perhaps the manufacture of saltpetre might on that account be attempted with success in many districts of Bengal. The actual extent of the saltpetre manufacture would admit of a production to whatever amount war or commerce required. What is delivered into the Company's warehouses does not usually cost more than two rupees per maund of 80 lbs; the rest, after paying duty and charges of transportation, and affording profit to several intermediate dealers, sells in general at four and five rupees per maund, for internal consumption, or for traffic with different parts of India. Formerly the saltpetre to Europe was in a great measure confined to the Company's investment; but private persons are now allowed to export it in large quantities under certain restrictions.

The opium produced in the provinces of Bahar and Benares is monopolized by government, and sold in Calcutta by public sale; and for various reasons this monopoly seems less exceptionable than many others. At present the opium agent of Patna makes his purchases from the districts of Patna, Bahar, Ramghur, Shahabad, Sarun, and Tirhoot; but Dr. Francis Buchanan is of opinion,

that with some pains, the whole quantity might be procured from the district of Bahar alone, which would tend greatly to the suppression of the contraband trade in this narcotic. Many expenses are incurred in bringing it to market, one of the heaviest being the loss by drying, which is entirely done in the factory at Patna, to which station it is brought in pots, just as it is collected from the plant, and in drying loses from one-tenth to one-eighth of its weight. As it dries it is formed into lumps, which are wrapped up in coverings made of the flower leaves of the poppy, joined together by placing them, while fresh, on a hot earthen pot. Some women earn a subsistence by preparing these coverings, which are sent to the factory ready joined. In the evening, each capsule of the poppy as it attains the proper degree of maturity, has a slight incision made in its whole length; and next morning what opium has exuded, is collected. After two or three days, another incision is made at some distance from the first, and according to the size of the capsule, it admits of being cut from three to five times; but the crop season lasts six weeks, as the capsules advance at different periods. The extraction of the opium does no material injury to the seed, which is chiefly used for future seed, but a little also is used in native sweetmeats. Formerly, the opium sent to Calcutta was much deteriorated by the intermixture of foreign ingredients, and it was difficult to discover the adulteration. It has, however, been commonly supposed to be vitiated with an extract from the leaves and stalk of the poppy, and with gum of the mimosa. Although the soil and climate are so singularly adapted for the production of this intoxicating drug, yet the Board of Trade in 1815 declared, that the two agencies of Bahar and Benares had never been able to supply a greater quantity of opium, in the most favourable seasons, than was sufficient to supply the demand for foreign trade; and that during unfavourable seasons (which frequently occur), the quantity had never been equal to meet that object.

In the nature of landed property, there are several distinctions between Bengal and Benares, of which the following are the principal. In Bengal the zemindaries are (or rather were) very extensive; and that of Burdwan alone is equal in produce to three fourths of that of Bahar, in which province the zemindaries are comparatively small. The power and influence of the principal zemindars in Bengal are proportionably great, and they are able to maintain a degree of independence, which the inferior zemindars of Bahar have lost. The latter, also, having been placed under a provincial administration from distance as well as comparative inferiority, have been precluded from that degree of information which the zemindars of Bengal, from their vicinity to Calcutta and access to the officers of government, have been able to obtain. The lands of Bahar have, from time immemorial, been let to farm; and no general settlement, since the acquisition of the dewanny, had been concluded between government and

the proprietors of the soil, until the final and perpetual assessment of 1792. There are few instances of Jaghires in Bengal, probably not more than three or four; but they are frequent in Bahar. The custom of dividing the produce of the land, in certain proportions between the cultivator and government, was almost universal in Bahar; but in Bengal this custom was very partial and limited. Upon the whole, the proprietors of the soil in Bahar were in a degraded state as compared with those of Bengal. In Bahar there are but three principal zemindaries; viz. the Rajas of Tirhoot, Shahabad, and Tickary.

Here, as in Bengal, by the too precipitate conclusion of the perpetual revenue settlement, and abolition of the Canongoe office, the tenant was apparently left at the mercy of the zemindar, but experience has shewn that he does not in practice suffer the hardships, to which in theory he would appear exposed; the reciprocal wants of the parties driving them to something like an amicable compromise. The landlord can no more do without the tenant, than the tenant can do without the landlord. The obligation of the latter to pay his land-tax, is peremptory; his failure, ruin. Starvation is equally the lot of the cultivator, if he cannot get employment. Nature, however, in this climate, requires little; and although frequent instances have occurred of zemindars having been ruined, none has been recorded of a cultivator being starved for want of employment. In reality, the tenants both of Bahar and Benares are certainly in a better condition than during the time of Cossim Ali. One half of the produce is still the usual share of the cultivators, and the demand for them is so great, that they can and do make better terms. A tenant who had one plough at the time of the perpetual settlement, will be found to have now two or three ploughs; and since that date, the rate of hire for a ploughman has nearly doubled, while grain is, on an average, much cheaper. And although cloth and some other articles of necessary use are dearer, the cultivator, who was formerly almost naked, is now seen clothed.

The principal rivers of Bahar are the Ganges, the Sone, the Gunduck, the Dummodah, the Caramnassa, and the Dewah; the two last being boundary rivers: besides these, there are innumerable smaller streams, the country generally being extremely well supplied with moisture. The towns of the greatest magnitude are Patna, Chuprah, Daoudnagur, Gaya, Boglipoor, Monghir, Arrah, Chittra and Muzufferpoor. As we advance north through Bahar, the race of men evidently improves, compared with those of Bengal, as they are taller and much more robust; but between the two provinces so intimate a connexion has always subsisted, that it is difficult to separate their histories and statistics: the reader is therefore, for further information on these subjects, and more particularly with respect to the population, referred to the description of the Bengal province.

In the remote period of Hindoo history as conveyed down by their mytho-

logical legends, Bahar appears to have been the seat of two independent sovereignties; that of Magadha, or south Bahar, and that of Mithila (Tirhoot), or north Bahar. Although Gaya, the birth-place of Buddha, the great prophet and legislator of eastern Asia, be within the limits of this province, and is still a revered place of pilgrimage for sectaries of that persuasion, yet among the resident inhabitants no Buddhists are to be found, so completely has the race been either converted or eradicated; for there is considerable reason to believe, that until the Mahommedan conquest, the Buddhist religion was professed by the chiefs of the country; and the Jains assert, that they were predominant prior to the Buddhists. A specimen of the Lord's prayer in the Magadha, or language of south Bahar, when examined by the missionaries, was found to contain 24 of the words used in the Bengalese and Hindostany translations; besides some words of pure Sanscrit. A considerable proportion (probably one fourth) of the whole population, at present, profess the Mahommedan faith; the territory having been early subdued by these invaders, and the large towns along the course of the Ganges having been for several ages their favourite places of residence. The tranquillity which this tract of country has enjoyed since its transfer to the British, is probably unexampled in the history of India; the roar of the cannon at Buxar in 1764, being the last hostile sound that has reached the ears of its inhabitants. The consequence is, that the cultivation of the soil, especially since the decennial settlement, afterwards rendered perpetual, has been progressively increasing, and the population of particular parts (for it is difficult to get the natives to transfer their labour to contiguous wastes) absolutely overflowing. On the other hand, religious buildings are visibly on the decline, the followers of the two rival persuasions having no longer, as formerly, the means of constructing such edifices. The few, which, at present, piety, or superstition, or vanity, finds means to erect, are in general poor and insignificant; an observation which also applies to domestic buildings of every description. In 1814 and 1815, the jumma, or demand on account of the land revenue, and abkarry or excise, for the province of Bahar, was as follows:

	Jumma.	Abkarry.
District of Bahar, &c.	1,748,006 rupees.	318,675 rupees.
Boglipoor	385,916	44,569
Dharrumpoor	244,756	4,005
Sarun	1,410,560	92,865
Shahabad	1,128,515	48,947
Tirhoot	1,234,680	40,037
Total	6,152,435	549,103

(J. Grant, F. Buchanan, Colebrooke, Sir E. Colebrooke, Lord Teignmouth, Gholaum Hossein, &c. &c. &c.)

DISTRICT OF BOGLIPOOR *(Bhagelpur.)*

This district is situated between the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and occupies the south east corner of the Mogul province of Bahar, together with a small portion of that of Bengal. On the north it is bounded by the districts of Tirhoot and Purneah; on the south by Ramghur and Birboom; to the east it has Purneah and Moorshedabad; and to the west Bahar and Ramghur. Its greatest length from the boundaries of Birboom on the Dwaraca, to that of Tirhoot on the Tilawe, is about 133 miles in a N. N. W. and S. S. E. direction, and its greatest breadth, crossing the above line at right angles, is about 80 miles. By tracing the boundaries on Major Rennell's map, Dr. Francis Buchanan estimated its contents at about 8,225 square miles, distributed nearly in the following proportions, viz.

Land occupied by rivers, tanks, marshes and water-courses	364
Clay	797
Good free soil	575
Light sandy soil	229
Clay land	2,222
Free soil	2,181
Sandy or gravelly light soil	146
Level rocks, stones, and barren lands	429
Hills	1,285
Total square miles	8,225

In 1784, this district (then denominated Monghir) contained in all its dimensions 8,270 square miles, of which only 2,817 were in the Boglipoor division on both sides of the Ganges, and the whole territorial outline still continues very unsatisfactory, except where final decisions of the courts of justice have determined the disputed limits of different zemindaries. The modern capital is situated towards one of its extremities, and the whole section which is beyond the capital towards the north is separated from it by the Ganges, which is attended with much inconvenience, and some danger. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Mungheer, containing 31 mahals, revenue 109,625,981 dams. This circar furnishes 2,150 cavalry, and 50,000 infantry."

The hills of Boglipoor in few parts compose regular chains of considerable length, in most places there being passages, at very short intervals, through which a traveller might penetrate without any great ascent; but in the most hilly parts, these apertures have been allowed by the natives to be choked up

with trees, to protect their strong holds in former times. In the great cluster near Rajamahal, the hills, notwithstanding the ruggedness of the soil, are tolerably well occupied. In other clusters the hills are entirely waste. Many parts of the western cluster would admit of cultivation, and some have been tilled by the mountaineers; but the encouragement of the latter is very doubtful policy, and the inhabitants of the plain will on no account cultivate the hills, lest the purity of their birth should be suspected. The whole of these clusters, and even of the hills of Rajamahal, compose, in the opinion of the natives, a part of the Vindhyan mountains. Besides the hilly tracts there is a considerable extent of swelling ground divided into two portions, that exempted from the influence of the Ganges, and that liable to be affected by its floods.

Above Monghir, the Ganges forms the boundary between Boglipoor and Tirhoot, for about 30 miles. The other principal rivers and streams are,

The Bogmutty,	The Ulayi,	The Baghdar,	The Baruya,
Goggry,	Nagini,	Ghorghat,	Mooteejerna, and the
Kiyul,	Augjana,	Mohane,	Dobee.
Maura,	Nacti,		

Except in the eastern corner, none of the rivers flowing from the south are navigable, and in the dry season it is chiefly near their sources that these rivers contain any visible stream. The pieces of stagnant water may be divided into jeels which contain water throughout the year, and chaongre which dry up in the cold season. Some of the jeels are evidently the old channels of large rivers, which at both ends have lost all communication with the stream, but are so filled with water during the periodical rains, that even in spring they do not become dry. The principal jeels, however, are low lands, which collect a great quantity of water from floods and torrents, and never become dry. The most conspicuous of these is Domjala, south from Rajamahal, which in the rainy season is 7½ miles long, by 3½ broad, and in the dry season 4 miles by 1½. South winds are very uncommon in Boglipoor, east and west winds being the most prevalent for a great portion of the year. The former begin about the middle of June, and the latter about the middle of February, so that the east winds last double the time of those of the west, but they blow with less violence; many remarkable deviations, however, take place. The winters are less cold than in Purneah, and the heats of spring, when the winds are westerly, very severe, these winds being hot, and parchingly dry, and the hills are no where of a height sufficient to reduce the temperature of the atmosphere.

In the Boglipoor district there is a great variety of surface, but on the whole the portions of it fit for the plough appear rich, and capable of being rendered highly productive. A considerable extent is occupied by mere rock,

totally incapable of cultivation, and a still greater space is covered with fragments of rock of various sizes. On the hills these masses are so large and numerous, that, could the plough be used on account of the declivity, the nature of the ground would render its agency impracticable. It has been estimated that in woods, thickets of bushes, and deserted villages, which have become totally wild, there are 1731 square miles of land sufficiently level for the plough, and that there are 1146 square miles of hills that are covered with woods. Including the ground covered with tamarisks, therefore, there are in all, for forests and thickets, almost 3100 square miles; by far the greater part of which is kept, owing to various causes, in a very stunted condition. The teak tree has been planted near Boglipoor by some gentlemen; but it has not thriven. In many parts of the southern central division iron ore has been found, but generally in such small masses, that it would not answer for European manufacture. The most noted hot spring is at Seetacoond, near the town of Monghir, and there is another at Bhurka, six miles south from Seetacoond. The finest hot spring is at Bheembund, about 17 miles south from Bhurka, in which on the 21st of March, 1810, the thermometer stood at 144° Fahrenheit; but there are many others of various temperatures.

Rice, although of less importance than in districts further east, is here by far the greatest culmiferous crop. The next in importance is wheat, and at Rajamahal and Monghir, abundance of fine flower may be procured; next comes barley and then maize, which is the grain best suited for the high lands where the soil is good. The proportion of land that gives two crops is smaller than in Purneah, and the custom of mixing several things in one crop more prevalent. In most parts of the district, on account of the white ants, grain cannot be kept in pits; but in the low inundated lands, where these destructive insects cannot harbour, pits are used in the dry season. The European potatoe has come into very general use at Monghir and Boglipoor, where they are cultivated and preserved throughout the year. Cotton is a considerable crop, but the quantity raised is not sufficient for the consumption of the district, much is consequently imported. In 1810, there were 32 indigo factories, all situated near the river, and having about 91,000 begahs under cultivation; the total annual produce was estimated at 7,000 maunds. The farmer here allows from 20 to 30 bundles of the plant, as the average produce of a begah, Calcutta measure; and the price given by the factories varies from 12 to 20 bundles for the rupee. Day labourers receive about three seers of grain per day, or money and grain equivalent.

The rent-free lands in this district are very extensive, and abstract greatly from the revenue, as it is usually the best soil, and situated in the most

populous parts of the country. Another burthen has tended to reduce the revenue of this large territory to an insignificant sum, which is the assignment of lands to invalid soldiers, as part of their subsistence, and a reward for their services. It has however been found, after an enormous expenditure, that the expectation of rendering this a comfortable provision for the veteran was fallacious, and the plan has been most judiciously abandoned. For the future, the invalids will be rewarded with money, which is much better suited to their habits and infirmities, less expensive and more easily regulated. The whole land purchased by government, on account of the invalids, amounts to 234,000 Calcutta begahs, which may be converted into three zemindaries. The existing zemindars, notwithstanding the indulgence that has been shewn them in the revenue assessment, have not the least confidence in the perpetual settlement, and have recourse to every stratagem to conceal their profit; which, where any pains have been taken to cultivate the lands, are probably enormous. In 1814, the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to only 385,916 rupees, and the abkarry, or tax on spirituous liquors, to 44,569 rupees.

The drains on population in this district are not great, yet after so long a peace, and with so much unoccupied territory, the increase of inhabitants has not been so great as might have been expected. In 1810, the total number of Mahommedans within the limits of the jurisdiction were estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan at 460,000, and of Hindoos at 1,559,900, making a total for the whole district of 2,019,900 souls. The Monghir and Surjegurry pergunnahs are overstocked with inhabitants, yet the people cannot be persuaded to settle in the adjacent wastes of Mallepoor. The following are the principal towns, besides Rajamahal, which contains 25,000 inhabitants:

	Houses.		Houses.		Houses.
Boglipoor .	5,000	Serasin .	500	Caligunge .	600
Champagnagur	1,500	Surjegurry	500	Atapoor . .	500
Nathnagur .	900	Arjungunge	500	Colgong .	400

Besides Monghir and Oudanulla there are the remains of a considerable number of brick and mud fortresses, some of which, belonging to the Curruckpoor and Ghiddore families, were destroyed by Captain Brooke, who was sent to reduce their chiefs to subordination during the government of Mr. Hastings. The best looking modern edifices are the indigo factories. Real slaves of the male sex are here called Nufur, and their women Laundies. They may be sold in whatever manner the master chuses, but they are not often brought to market, and are all either of the Dhanak or Rawani castes. The slaves here are in general industrious, seldom run away, and are rarely beaten. Prostitutes are few in number, and mostly of the Mahommedan religion. The general character of the

inhabitants of this district is far superior to that of the south eastern natives of Bengal, and one magistrate in his report to government declares, that in comparison with the Backergunge people they may be termed saints.

Boglipoor is a remarkable thoroughfare for travellers both by land and water, who expend a great deal of money in the purchase of necessaries, such as rice, pulse, salt, oil, seasoning, fire-wood, tobacco, and betel. Upon an average it may be estimated that one hundred boats stop daily at Rajamahal, besides those at Pointy, Colgong, Sultangunge, Surjegurry, Boglipoor, and Monghir; while by land, multitudes of pilgrims, troops, and European travellers, are continually passing. The East India Company's dealings, however, in this district are inconsiderable, consisting of a little silk, Boglipoor cloth, and saltpetre.

The mountaineers within the Boglipoor jurisdiction are supposed to occupy a space of about 1,600 square miles, and are exempted from all taxes and the ordinary course of the law. An enormous establishment of nearly 2,500 men is retained to check this handful of barbarians, who are besides bribed by annual pensions to give up the committing violent outrages, such as robbery and murder. The Rajas, or chiefs, who receive pensions of ten rupees per month from government, and some of the Naibs, or deputies, are of the rank of Singhs; the remainder of the Naibs, and all the Majhis, who are pensioned at the rate of two rupees per month, are of the rank of Majhi. The land, which appears to be the property of the cultivators, is tilled for two years and then abandoned for five or six. In the low lands that are ploughed, they raise the same articles as on the hills, with the addition of rape-seed and sesamum. They collect wild yams, and besides cows for milk and labour, they rear swine, goats, fowls, and pigeons for eating. Many still retain a superstitious worship of their own, but a great number of the wealthiest have fallen under the spiritual dominion of a low caste of Brahmins, who have instructed them to worship Durga, and say prayers before a beel tree. Both sexes are much addicted to intoxication, and the amount of the government pensions is generally spent in liquor at Boglipoor, the chiefs returning to the hills as bare of money as they came. The exports of these mountaineers consist of grain, indurated clay, timber, fire-wood, charcoal, wax, and cotton; their imports are cloths, iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal wares, rice, fish, cattle, oil, spices, and salt.

From the time of the Mahommedan invasion until the British obtained possession, the greater part of this district appears to have been in a constant state of anarchy. Some of the original tribes seem never to have been subdued by the Hindoo followers of the Brahmins, and it is only lately that many of them have put themselves under the guidance of the sacred order. Even under the sway of Sultan Shuja, when the Mogul empire flourished in vigour, and when

that prince actually resided in the district, some portions of the plains were subject to petty chiefs who contemned his authority, and incessantly agitated the country by their incursions and refractory habits. Mogul officers of rank commonly resided at Rajamahal, Boglipoor, and Monghir, and the first still continues a favourite place of residence with the Mahommedans. Cossim Ali, after his quarrel with the English, dwelt for some time at Monghir, and intended to secure his independence by a line of fortifications erected at Oudanulla. The forcing of these by Major Adams in 1763, dissipated this vision; but the turbulence of the chiefs of the interior increased, and Captains Brooke and Browne were for several years employed in a miserable warfare with these tribes, but the forces employed were never of such strength as to bring the matter to a conclusion. At length Captain Browne, of course with the assent of government, by enormous concessions induced the discontented to become quiet, and his concessions were confirmed by Mr. Cleveland, the civil functionary who succeeded him in authority over the wilder parts of the district. The result was a ruinous settlement and establishment, which still forms part of the Boglipoor economy, and which in the opinion of competent judges (Dr. F. Buchanan, and Mr. Sisson) has produced but little ultimate benefit, those hills in which there is no establishment of the kind (Ghautwallas), having continued as tranquil as those in which that establishment was introduced. In 1814, the corporate establishment of the Boglipoor hills consisted of 13 Sirdars or chiefs, 30 Naibs or deputies, and 499 Manjhees. The pension of a Sirdar is 10 rupees, of a Naib 3, and of a Manjhee 2 rupees per month. Although the great extent and physical composition of this district necessarily tend to weaken the controul of the magistrate, yet in 1815 few crimes of magnitude occurred, the most noted being a murder perpetrated among the hills on a woman by her husband, who confessed the crime, and attempted to justify it on the plea that she was a bad housewife, and neglected her domestic duties. The Boglipoor district, although not so populous as some others, is of such extent, that it is difficult for the magistrate to exercise an efficient controul, some of the tannahs or police stations being 100 miles distant from head quarters. Great benefit resulted to Monghir, and the police of its neighbourhood, in 1813, from the appointment of an assistant magistrate to reside in that quarter, offences having immediately diminished in number, but the general police of the jurisdiction in 1814 was far from having attained the state of efficiency to which it had been carried in some of the districts adjacent.—*(F. Buchanan, Sisson, J. Shakespear, Tennant, &c.)*

Boglipoor.—The modern capital of the district, situated in lat. 25° 13′ N. long. 86° 58′ E. 110 miles N. W. from Moorshedabad. This town has a mean appearance although placed in a beautiful situation. The European houses and

the Mahommedan mosques are ornamental, but the town consists of scattered bazars wretchedly built, and owing to the declivities inconveniently situated. The most compact portion is the market place, named Shujah Gunge, in which there are three or four streets closely built, and the total number of houses may be estimated at 5,000, which, allowing six persons to a house, would give a population of 30,000 souls. A majority of the inhabitants are Mahommedans, and a college of that religion still exists, but in a great state of decay. At this place there is a small church belonging to the Papists, and about fifty Christians of that persuasion. Half of these are the descendants of Portugueze, and the remainder native converts who retain their own dress and manners. In 1810, the priest was a native of Milan, sent by the Societas de Propaganda Fide, who had also charge of the Purneah flock of catholics. Near Goganullah, one stage from Boglipoor, is a monument resembling a pagoda, erected to the memory of Mr. Cleveland by the officers and zemindars of the Jungleterry of Boglipoor, as a mark of gratitude for his mild and conciliatory conduct.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

BOGARIAH.—A town in the Boglipoor district, situated about 130 miles N. W. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 53′ N. long. 86° 52′ E.

NOONY *(Lavani, brackish)*.—A small town in the Boglipoor district, 74 miles W. N. W. from Moorshedabad. Lat. 24° 28′ N. long. 87° 8′ E.

CHAMPANAGUR.—A considerable town in the Boglipoor district, three miles west from the town of Boglipoor, lat. 25° 14′ N. long. 56° 55′ E. Champanagur and Lakshmigunge are populous and tolerably compact, and contain collectively about 1,500 houses, mostly occupied by weavers. At this place there is a monument of a Mahommedan saint of some note and great size, for his monument is said to equal what were his length and stature, which on this authority must have been nine cubits. These great dimensions were probably allowed to the saint from his having been placed at Champanagur, among the Jains, whose gods are all of very great length.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

CURRUCKPOOR *(Kharakpur)*.—A town and large zemindary in the Boglipoor district, 18 miles south from Monghir, lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 86° 35′ E. Owing to the natural strength of the country, the Curruckpoor chiefs formerly possessed considerable power, and, when at variance with the government, used to retire to the narrow vallies among the hills, where they could not be followed by the Mogul horsemen.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

SURAJEGHUR.—A town in the Boglipoor district, 68 miles E. S. E. from Patna, lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 86° 15′ E.

GHIDDHORE.—This place is principally remarkable for the ruins of an old castle, said to have been built by Shere Shah, the Patan, who expelled Hoomayun the father of Acber, and became Emperor of Hindostan. What at present

remains consists of a wall rudely built of uncut stones from the adjacent mountains, and very ill arranged. At the middle and angles these walls are 23 feet thick at the bottom, and about 17 at the top, and seem originally to have been about thirty feet high, without a ditch, and solely adapted for the use of missile weapons. Lat. 24° 52′ N. long. 86° 10′ E. 37 miles S. S. W. from Monghir.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

CHACKY *(Chaki)*.—A town in Boglipoor district, 102 miles S. E. from Patna. Lat. 24° 33′ N. long. 86° 25′ E.

CURRUCKDEAH *(Caracdeh)*.—A town and zemindary in the Boglipoor district, 100 miles S. E. from Patna. Lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 86° 13′ E.

PALGUNGE.—A town (formerly fortified) in the Boglipoor district, 122 miles S. E. from Patna. Lat. 24° 5′ N. long. 86° 15′ E.

MONGHIR *(Mudga giri)*.—A celebrated town and fortress in the province of Bahar, situated on the south side of the river Ganges. Lat. 25° 23′ N. long. 86° 26′ E.. The fort of Monghir is large and surrounded by a wall and deep ditch, and has, probably owing to its physical advantages, been a place of note from the remotest antiquity. It is most beautifully situated on a bend of the Ganges, which in the rainy season forms here a prodigious expanse of fresh water. During the whole period of the Mogul government, Monghir continued to be a place of importance, and was the station of a series of officers of considerable rank. It was strengthened by Shah Shujah, brother to Aurengzebe, and almost a century afterwards repaired by Cossim Ali, when he intended to throw off his dependence on the English government, which had raised him to the throne. He added considerably to the fortifications, and endeavoured to discipline the natives for its defence, but in vain; for it was taken after a siege of only nine days. While Monghir was a frontier town, it was a place of considerable importance, a station of one of the brigades, and a depot of ammunition; but since the expansion of the British dominions beyond Delhi, and the selection of Allahabad for a depot, the fort of Monghir has been suffered to decay, and is now degraded to an invalid station, a lunatic asylum for the native military, and a depot for army clothing; the neighbourhood being a noted resort of tailors. In case of exigence, the fortifications might still be repaired so as to exclude a native army; but without a total change could not be made to resist a regular attack, the works being of a great extent, and apparently never intended for defence by ordnance.

The town of Monghir, as distinct from the fortress, consists of sixteen different markets, scattered over a space of about one mile and a half long and one wide. The only two portions in this space that are close built, or resemble a town, are without the eastern and southern gates of the fort; at each of which is a street

sufficiently wide to admit carriages to pass, and closely built, with several brick houses. Between the river and the northern gate of the fort, is a suburb, which may be considered as the fort, but it is mostly built on the sand of the Ganges, which renders it necessary every year to remove many of the houses during the floods. The number of houses may be estimated at 5000, and six persons allowed to a house, giving a population of 30,000 souls. The place of worship in most repute among the Mahommedans, is the monument of Peer Shah Hossein Lohauni, where both Hindoos and Mahommedans make frequent offerings, especially on their marriages, and other emergencies. The gardeners of Monghir are noted throughout Bengal for their expertness, and, as has already been mentioned, the tailors are not of less celebrity, much of the army clothing being made here, besides shoes, both of native and European fashions. Here also, and at Boglipoor, are some workmen who make European furniture, palanquins, and carriages, and when furnished with sound materials, and well looked after, are really clever workmen. The blacksmiths occupy about 40 houses, and make goods after the European fashion, very coarse when compared with English articles, but still useful and cheap as will be seen by the following prices, viz. double barrelled guns 32 rupees; rifles, 30; single barrelled fowling pieces, 18; muskets, 8; matchlocks, 4; pistols, 10; double ditto, 30; table knives and forks per dozen, 6 rupees. The barrels of the fire-arms are made by twisting a rod round an iron spindle, and then hammering it together; the bore is afterwards polished and enlarged by borers of different sizes.

The hot spring named Sectacoond, is situated on a plain near the Ganges, about 4 or 5 miles from Monghir. A cistern of brick has been built to include the springs, and forms a pool of about 18 feet square. At different places many air bubbles rise from the bottom, issuing many at one time, with irregular intervals between the ascents; and near to where these rise the water is always hottest. When visited by Dr. Francis Buchanan in April 1810, the thermometer, in the open air being 68°, rose to 130 when immersed; on the 20th of that month, from 84° to 122°; yet on the 28th, a little after sunset, the thermometer only rose from 90° to 92°. At another period, on the 21st July, from 90° to 132; and on the 21st of September, from 88 to 132°. The water is clear, and the heat generally prevents its being polluted by the natives and other animals.

Travelling distance from Monghir to Calcutta by Birboom, 275 miles; by Moorshedabad, 301 miles.—*(F. Buchanan, Rennell, &c.)*

Mootyjerna *(Mutijarna)*.—A cataract in the Boglipoor district, situated about eight miles inland from the Ganges. It consists of two falls, which taken together, measure 105 feet, perpendicular height. The water after falling over vast masses of rocks is received in a basin below. At the bottom of the lower

fall is a cave, from within which the water may be seen forming an arch on the outside.—*(Hodges, &c.)*

COLGONG *(Kahalgang)*.—A small town in the Boglipoor district, containing about 400 houses, situated in latitude 25° 14′ N. long. 87° 15′ E. 102 miles N. W. from Moorshedabad. Although the Ganges runs almost due north from Colgong to Patharghaut for about eight miles, and although it not only washes but surrounds the rocks of the Vindhyan mountains, this spot, which ought by the Hindoos to be thought on both accounts peculiarly holy, is totally neglected; and no assembly of that persuasion takes place here for the purpose of expiating their sins by ablution. On the contrary, all the pilgrims flock to the opposite side, where the river follows its usual course, and the country is a dead level.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

TELLIAGHURRY.—A small town in the Boglipoor district, 23 miles N. W. from Rajamahal. Lat. 25° 15′ N. long. 87° 37′ E. The hills here descend to the river, and collectively form the boundary between the Mogul provinces of Bahar and Bengal. Sultan Shujah built here a fortress, which has been a considerable work, the two extremes being a mile from each other. The gates are of stones, but the houses within are entirely of brick. In 1810 an iron cannon of extreme rudeness still remained at the western gate.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF BAHAR.

A large district of Bahar province, of which it occupies the central portion. On the north it is bounded by the Ganges; on the south by the districts of Ramghur and Boglipoor; to the east it has Boglipoor, and on the west Shahabad. Its greatest length is about 120 miles, and its greatest width 80; the superficial contents of the whole being about 5,358 square miles, of which about 403 belong to the city of Patna jurisdiction, leaving to Bahar 4,955 square miles. On the whole this zillah may be considered as tolerably compact, although the boundaries towards Ramghur are very ill defined. In 1784, according to Major Rennell, it contained 6,680 square miles, besides hilly territory dismembered from Palamow and Ramghur; but since that era much has been restored to the latter, and a small territory attached to the city of Patna as above related. The collector of Bahar, who resides at Patna, has under his care not only the greater part of the lands that are under the magistrates of Patna and Bahar, but receives also the revenues of the Ramghur district. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Bahar, containing 46 mahals, measurement 952,598 begahs, revenue 83,196,390, segurghal 2,270,147 dams. This circar furnishes 2,115 cavalry, and 67,350 infantry."

A great proportion of this district is level and highly cultivated land, but there are

also many hills, most of which are extremely rugged, being, from a difference in their component parts, much more broken than others, and their sterility is rendered more conspicuous by their nakedness. A great many of these hills are scattered about with the utmost irregularity, and stand quite insulated among the soil of the plains. In the heart of the district are three remarkable clusters; one on the west side of the Phalgu, named the Barabar Pahar; one on the eastern side of the Phalgu, named the Rajagriha hills; the third is a long narrow ridge adjacent to Sheikhpoorah, but the whole are of inconsiderable elevation, the highest probably not exceeding 700 feet. The hills towards the southern boundary are more considerable, and some of them probably twice the above height. From hence a continuation of hills and narrow vallies, reaches with little or no interruption to a great extent, possibly to Cape Comorin, and all these hills are considered portions of the Vindhyan mountains, which bound the great Gangetic plain. The hills of this district no where approach the Ganges, and the interior of the country, reckoning from the Ganges, is in general flat, although not so low as to be liable to inundation. The term Terriani is here applied to the bank of the Ganges, whether high or low, and vast pains are employed by the inhabitants in collecting and conducting water.

The Ganges is no where fordable within the limits of the Bahar division, at any season of the year, and its channel when clear of islands is generally a mile wide. Besides that noble stream, the chief rivers are the Sone, the Punpun, the Murahar, the Dardha, the Phalgu, the Saeri, and the Panchane, with their numerous branches. There is nothing in Bahar that can be called a lake, and the marshes are of small extent. During the rainy season, for the purposes of rice cultivation, the greater part of the country is converted into a marsh; but in the dry season, even the low lands, parallel to the Ganges from Patna downwards, become quite dry. On the banks of the Ganges towards the Sone, west winds usually prevail from the 13th of January to the 26th of March, from which period until the 12th of June, the east and west winds are nearly equal. From the last date until the end of July, the east wind prevails, and from then until the end of August, the west winds prevail. From that time to the end of October, the east winds return, and, finally, from that period until the 13th of January, the east and west winds are nearly balanced; many irregularities, however take place in the periods and duration of these winds. The rainy season is generally of the same duration as in Boglipoor; but when the fall has not been very copious, from the 15th of September to the 15th of October, the rice crops suffer, unless there is a good deal of rain towards the end of October. Rains which happen in January are injurious to most crops, especially to wheat, although the fields of that grain require at that season to be artificially watered.

Two or three days of cloudy weather with drizzling rain will, at that season, entirely burn up a crop of wheat.

Although the winters are not severe, fires are then extremely comfortable, and all the natives who can procure one sleep by it, yet frosty nights are rare. The heats of spring are excessive, and much aggravated by the dust, there not being at that time a vestige of vegetation, and not only the west winds, but also those from the east are hot and parching. The heat of the Bahar district is on the whole much higher than that of Tirhoot. Even the difference between Patna and Hajypoor, two places situated opposite to each other, with only the Ganges intervening, is very observable; and between Gaya and Muzufferpoor is much greater than might be inferred from the trifling difference of latitude; yet by the natives Bahar is considered a healthy country, while Tirhoot, except its northern parts, is not considered such. Both Patna and Gaya are found to be hotter than most other parts of the district. The heat of the first seems owing to a great extent of naked sand on an island immediately fronting the town, and that of Gaya partly to the immense sands of the Phalgu, and partly to the reflection of the sun from the arid rocks by which it is surrounded.

In this district there is much land of a poor soil, but the proportion absolutely unfit for the plough is smaller than in Boglipoor or Purneah. Close up to the hills is in general arable, the stony broken land even in their vicinity not being considerable, but most of the hills are utterly unfit for cultivation. Very few of the islands in the Ganges belong to Bahar, and its southern bank is in general high, so that the quantity of land which it has covered with sand is inconsiderable, and is mostly confined to the islands. On the other hand, near the large rivers of the interior, especially near the immense channels of the Sone and Phalgu, the strong dry west winds of spring have blown from the parched beds of the torrents large heaps of sand that form little hillocks, frequently changing place, and perfectly barren. The channel of the Sone is in some places of a tolerable soil, and in the dry season is cultivated without the smallest danger of interruption from its stream. There are no embankments in Bahar for excluding the floods of any considerable size, but many of a smaller and more beneficial description. Near the Ganges, a great deal of land gives two crops in the year; but in the interior not above one-eighth. Rice is the most important crop, and great pains are bestowed on its cultivation. The transplanted rice is all fine; but the very finest, named Basmati, does not exceed one-fourth of the whole, and is an article for which at Calcutta there is always a very great demand. Next to rice is wheat of an excellent quality, and then comes barley. About 24,000 begahs were in 1811 under cultivation for cotton, but the quantity produced was very inadequate to the demands of the country, which is mostly supplied

from the west, and with an inferior article. The cultivation of tobacco is not great, and that of indigo of very little importance, and much objected to by the zemindars. In 1811 only seven factories remained, and these were not prosperous. The cattle of the cow kind are in every respect superior to those of Bengal.

The rents here are heavy, usually amounting to one-half of the crop after deducting the expense of the harvest, and sometimes to nine-sixteenths; but except in the cities of Patna and Gaya, or other large market places, the ashraf, or high ranks, pay no rent for the ground occupied by their houses, nor can any landlord refuse to allot land for the purpose to any ashraf who requires it. The natives of the British isles, however, not being dignified with the title of ashraf, find great difficulty in procuring land to build on, and must always pay an extraordinary rent, a circumstance (as Dr. F. Buchanan observes) by no means the unusual practice with successful invaders. These ashraf consist of high castes, both Mahommedan and Hindoo, such as Seids, Patans, Moguls, Brahmins, Khetris, Rajpoots, Kayastas, and Vaisyas. Although the rents of land are much higher than further east, where some pay next to nothing, the generality of the people are in much better circumstances. The extent of land exempted from assessment to the revenue is enormous, and in 1801 was estimated by the collector as half the amount of those paying a land-tax, yet the last were reported to be in the best state of cultivation. Many of these rent-free portions are still large, but, owing to the established rules of succession, are fast frittering away into petty portions. This minute subdivision of property has reduced a great majority of the zemindars to the condition of mere peasants, just a stage above beggary. The profit on the assessed lands is supposed greatly to exceed ten per cent. indeed probably exceeds the whole amount of the revenue, (which in 1814 was 1,748,006 rupees,) yet the assessed lands up to 1811 had not become very saleable property, many of the lots put up to auction by the collector having for want of purchasers fallen into the hands of government, which tends to prove, that the settlement made by Lord Cornwallis is not a security even for the revenue which he rendered perpetual. The tricks, chicanery, and roguery, by which this apparently unaccountable predicament has been effectuated, would require, to detail them, a volume of most enormous dimensions, and when narrated, would put to the blush, conjointly and severally, all the pettifoggers in Europe.

The villages in Bahar usually consist of mud-walled houses closely huddled together, so as to render a passage through them on an elephant, or in a palanquin, often impracticable; but the district being very populous, and the inhabitants of a more gregarious disposition than further to the south and east, it contains a

remarkable number of considerable towns, of which (excluding Patna), the following are the most noted. Gaya, the residence of the judge and magistrate, 6,400 houses.

	Houses.		Houses.
Daudnagur contains	8,000	Baikantpoor	2,000
Bar	5,000	Tilarah	2,000
Dinapoor	3,236	Phulwari	1,700
Bahar (town)	5,000	Maner	1,500
Nawada	2,500	Sherpoor	1,000
Islamgunge	3,000	Buniyadgunge	1,200
Phatuha	2,000	Sheikhpoorah	1,000

The number of smaller towns, from 100 to 500 houses, is astonishingly great, and their population may always be sufficiently exactly found by allowing at least five to a house. In 1811, the population of the district of Bahar, exclusive of Patna and the small jurisdiction attached to it, was estimated by Dr. Francis Buchanan to contain—

Mahommedans	724,159
Hindoos	2,030,991
Total	2,755,150

Within its limits there were formerly 86 mud forts or castles, and 29 are still occupied. These were built when the Maharattas levied contributions every two or four years, and when the zemindars decided all their disputes with the sword. In 1811, there were about 2,000 persons from this district in the British military service, the poor gentry of both religions (the ashraf) being hardy men of high spirit, and excellently adapted for soldiers. In 1801, Mehedi Ali Khan, the grandson of Gholaum Hossein Khan, the historian, resided in this district. Slaves of the description called Nufur and Laundi are very numerous, often liberated, seldom sold, and frequently, owing to the poverty of their owners, left to find a subsistence for themselves. In Gaya, and some other places, slaves are occasionally sold, and formerly fetched a rupee for each year of their age until they reached twenty, when they attained their highest value; but in general the price has recently greatly risen. Considering how many large towns there are in this district, the number of prostitutes is very small, and the petty town of Rungpoor, with the small tract immediately adjacent, contains more than the immense city of Patna, with the territory attached to it; indeed the character of the Baharians generally is of a superior description, when compared with their neighbours to the east and south. The convicts here, as in most other districts, are employed on the roads, which is in fact doing little more than making a place

agreeable to those who keep carriages, and next to nothing for the public, if the natives be considered as forming any part of it.

The six great places of pilgrimage in this district are the river Punpun, Gaya, Rajagriha, Baikuntha on the Pangchane, Lohadanda near Giriyak, and Chyaban Muni; but the two last are little frequented. In the division of Nawada, the sect of Jain have two places of pilgrimage; one a tank choked up with weeds, especially of the Nelumbium. The temple stands on a small square island in it, and contains two stones, on each of which there is an inscription, and the representation of two human feet; but no tradition exists from what cause its reputation for sanctity originated. The Mahommedan population has been estimated at 724,000, and occasionally still makes converts from the pagans, especially by the purchase of slaves, who are usually treated with great kindness, but for want of money this mode of conversion proceeds slowly. The Shiah sect form but an inconsiderable portion of the whole, probably not exceeding 3000 families, mostly of rank. The number of Brahmins is immense, 80,000 families, most of whom have entirely betaken themselves to agriculture and arms; and there are also a considerable number of Hindoos belonging to the sect of Nanock, the Seik lawgiver. The Jains, here called Shrawuks, amount to about 350 families. On the annual festival named Dewali, the Goalas or cowherds, tie the feet of a pig, and drive their cattle over the wretched animal until it is killed, after which they boil and eat it; but at other times do not use pork. On this occasion every rich man sends his cattle to assist in the ceremony, and poor men paint their cattle's horns to make them look handsome.

When the British took possession of this district, by far the greater part was in a wild state, and the southern half, after being repeatedly plundered by the Maharattas, had fallen into a predatory anarchy. The Mahommedan chief of the tribe of Mayi, and the Rajas of Tickary, were the principal leaders in these dissensions, but being coerced by the British power, tranquillity was restored, and a more adequate land-tax imposed. At present most parts of the district are overflowing with population, and the whole would have probably been so, had not the very great extent of rent-free land tended in some divisions to encourage sloth and negligence. In 1813, according to the report of the superintendant of police, the crime of gang robbery had nearly disappeared; only one instance having occurred in the course of that year, and unattended with any aggravating circumstances. Burglary was of frequent occurrence, and no hopes of effectually suppressing this crime were entertained, until the re-establishment of village watchmen was organized.—*(F. Buchanan, J. Grant, Tufton, &c. &c.)*

Sone River *(Sona, golden)*.—The rivers Sone and Nerbuddah have their sources in the table land of Omercuntuc, in the province of Gundwana. The

Sone rises on the east side, and flows through Pindarah, where, being joined by numerous other streams from the N.E. side of this mountainous territory, it proceeds in a northerly direction through Sohagepoor and Bogalecund, whence turning more to the eastward, it pursues its course towards the Ganges. According to the Bengal atlas, their junction formerly took place at Maner, but a tongue of land projecting east has been formed from the Shahabad district, so that Maner is now three miles above the confluence of the two rivers. This immense torrent forms the boundary between the districts of Shahabad and Bahar, for about 55 miles of a direct line, from its mouth upwards; and it is in general almost equal in size to the channel of the Ganges. After heavy rains the channel is almost filled, but does not overflow, and has a rapidity that scarcely admits of navigation against the stream; but during the rainy season, boats of 5 or 600 maunds pass the whole extent of the above two districts, and small boats of 20 maunds can pass the whole year. The channel of the Sone in the province of Bahar, is noted for the beauty of its pebbles and the superiority of its fish over those of the sacred and holy stream. Near its origin this river is said to be designated by the natives, the Sonabudda, to distinguish it from the Nerbuddah, by which, conjointly with the Ganges, the triangular portion of Hindostan is insulated.—*(F. Buchanan, Blunt, &c.)*

Fulgo River *(Phalgu)*.—This river is formed above Gaya by the union of two immense torrents, named the Mohane and Nilajan. The first enters the Bahar district from Ramghur, 20 miles S. E. from Gaya; the last about 11 miles south from the same place. When it reaches the high and rocky shore of Gaya, the channel of the river, where free of islands, is about 500 yards broad, and when filled by the periodical monsoon, it rushes past that city with tremendous noise and velocity. It is usually said that the holy part of it, which extends about half a mile, occasionally flows with milk, but the whole stream is noted for itssanctity. —*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

Patna *(Padmavati)*.—A large city in the province of Bahar, of which it is the modern capital. Lat. 25° 37′ N. long. 85° 15′ E. This place is situated on the south side of the Ganges, which is here five miles wide during the rainy season, and the eastern limits scarcely discernible. About the extremity of the suburbs at Jaffier Khan's garden, the Ganges divides into two branches, which surround a very large island, divided into two unequal portions, and about nine miles in length. The river here taking a bend to the south, the branch which goes to the east of this island is by far the largest, but boats of any size can at all seasons pass through the western channel between the island and Phataha. This magnificent stream does not here perceptibly increase, until the Dusahara, which happens on the 10th day of the moon in the month of Jaishta, which is in fact, about the commencement of the periodical rains.

It is difficult to settle the boundaries of Patna. To exclude all beyond the walls would reduce it to a trifle, while the suburbs are built in a very straggling ill defined manner. Including the suburbs and Jaffier Khan's garden, it comprehends an extent of nine miles along the banks of the Ganges. The width from the borders of the river is on an average two miles; but some part of the channel of the Ganges, and of the islands opposite to the city, must also be considered as belonging to this jurisdiction, so that on the whole an extent of 20 square miles may be allowed. Within the walls, Patna is rather more than one mile and a half from east to west, and three-fourths of a mile from north to south; the whole exceedingly closely built. Many houses are built of brick, more of mud with tiled roofs, but few are thatched. There is one street tolerably wide, that reaches from the eastern to the western gate; but it is by no means straight, or regularly built; every other passage is narrow, crooked, and irregular. In the heats of spring, the dust is beyond idea, and in the rains every place is covered with mud. East of the city is a very large suburb called Marusgunge, which contains many storehouses well built, but of very combustible materials, the whole of which are burned to the ground once in five or six years; frequently oftener. Above the town is a long narrow suburb, through which the European houses are scattered, chiefly along the banks of the river; but notwithstanding that this city is one of the chief European settlements in India, the seat of a court of appeal and circuit, of a city judge and magistrate, of a collector, a commercial resident, opium agent, and provincial battalion, the number of European houses and settlers is surprisingly few.

Patna was formerly fortified after the Hindostany manner, with a wall and small ditch, but these are now in the last stage of decay, and the gates tottering to their base. Neither are the bridges in a much better condition, being mostly in a ruinous state; the one over the west ditch was repaired by Mr. David Colvin, at his own expense. The gates at the east and west ends of Patna are of no use, as the ramparts are demolished, and from their ruinous and dangerous state, were, in 1801, a disgrace to the city. The inscription on the gate of the fort, dated in the Hijera 1042, attributes its erection to Feroze Jung Khan. The jail is a large building but neither handsome nor strong, and the house near to it, occupied as the city court, is a strange looking place; that of the court of appeal is a handsome modern building, but small. Many years ago the Company erected here a depot to contain rice, consisting of a building in the shape of a bee-hive, with two winding stair-cases on the outside, which have been ascended on horse-back. By means of these stairs it was intended the grain should be poured in at the top, there being a small door at the bottom to take it out. The walls at the bottom, although 21 feet thick, have given way,

a circumstance of very little consequence, as, were it filled, (which it never was), it would not contain one day's consumption for the province. In the middle of the city the Catholics have a church, the best looking in the place, although the whole flock only consists of about 20 families of native Portugueze. Near to it is the common grave of the British who were treacherously murdered in 1763, by Meer Cossim, before his final overthrow. This massacre was perpetrated by the German adventurer, Somro (Summers), whose widow still makes a figure in Upper Hindostan, and immediately after the city was captured by the British army under the command of Major Adams. The grave is covered with an uncouth pillar, partly of stone and partly of brick, without inscription. There are many mosques, but none large; some of them are now let by their owners as warehouses, especially the handsomest, built entirely of stone, and although the proprietor has thus debased his mosque, he perseveres strenuously in daily calling the faithful to prayers.

Such are the vicissitudes of Indian cities, that Patna may now take rank in size and population before the ancient capitals of Delhi and Agra. According to Dr. Francis Buchanan, in 1811, it was estimated to contain 52,000 houses, of which 7117 were reported to be built of brick; 11,639 of two stories with mud walls and tiled roofs; 22,188 mud-walled huts covered with tiles; and the remainder mud-walled huts covered with thatch. If the investigations of the native police officers are to be relied on, six persons may with safety be allowed to a house, which would give a total population of 312,000, besides which, there is a very considerable fluctuating population, consisting of sepoys, camp followers, boatmen, &c. &c. Of the number above mentioned 97,500 were supposed to be Mahommedans, and 214,500 Hindoos. The extent of territory composing the small district attached to the city of Patna comprehends 403 square miles, and in 1811, the aggregate of population of the city and district was estimated at 199,745 Mahommedans, and 409,525 Hindoos; total 609,270. The Seiks, or followers of Nanok, have here a place of worship of great repute, and several families of Armenians have long had a fixed residence at Patna. There are no regular schools or seminaries in which the Hindoo or Mahommedan law is taught, students in these branches of knowledge being instructed by private tutors, and it was remarked by the magistrates in 1801, that no new religious buildings of any sect were constructing, while the old ones were going rapidly to decay.

Patna merchants export to Nepaul broad cloth, muslins, silks, spices, and Manihari goods, and bring in return bees wax, gold dust, bull tails, musk, woollen cloth named Tush, and some medicinal herbs; Nepaul native merchants also trade to an equal extent. The whole Nepaul trade, however, does not

come this way, especially the timber from the lower provinces. In 1811, there were 24 bankers at Patna, who discounted all bills payable either at that town, or at Calcutta, Benares, and Moorshedabad. Some of them had also agents at Lucknow and Dacca, one had an agent at Nepaul, and the house of Juggeth Seth had agents at Bombay and Madras, and at all large towns under the British protection; but prior to the above date they had withdrawn their factories from places subject to independent native powers. Besides money transactions, some of them trade in European woollen cloths, jewels, foreign spiceries, metals imported by sea, and the fine kinds of cloth, of cotton, silk, and lace. Cash can always be procured here for Calcutta bank notes, sometimes without discount, and never more than one per cent. In 1811, gold had almost wholly disappeared, although it had been the common currency, and cowries were scarcely current; the only small coinage were copper pieces, of which 56 passed for a rupee. A large quantity of saltpetre is annually dispatched from hence to Calcutta for internal consumption and exportation. Chintzes and dimities of various kinds are manufactured here, and also cloths resembling diaper, and damask linen.

The Patna division of the court of circuit comprehends the following districts, viz. 1, Ramghur; 2, Bahar; 3, Tirhoot; 4, Sarun; 5, Shahabad; 6, the city of Patna. In 1812-13 the police of the latter was reported by the superintendant to be in a very inefficient state, the large islands in the vicinity covered with grass jungle, affording a secure asylum to robbers. The city of Patna is of a shape apparently well adapted for the exercise of an effectual controul, as it consists of only one long street running through its entire extent, with lanes branching to the right and left; and as the majority of these open at one end into the same street, through which alone they are connected with each other, a proper watch maintained in the great street would prevent nocturnal depredations to any great extent, unless collusion took place on the part of the native police officers.

Travelling distance from Patna to Calcutta by Moorshedabad, 400 miles; by Birboom, 340; distance from Benares, by Buxar, 155; from Delhi, 661; from Agra, 544; and from Lucknow, 316 miles.—*(F. Buchanan, J. D. Douglas, &c. &c. &c.)*

Hilsah.—A town in the Bahar district, 20 miles S. S. E. from Patna. Lat. 25° 18′ N. long. 85° 20′ E.

Jehanabad.—A town in the Bahar district, 33 miles S. by W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 13′ N. long. 82° 5′ E.

Bahar.—This city was at some remote period the capital of the province, to which it communicated its name; but it has since been superseded, first by Patna, and afterwards by Gaya, not having the commercial conveniences of the

first, nor the reputed sanctity of the last. Lat. 25° 13′ N. long. 85° 35′ E. 35 miles S. E. from Patna. The existing town is a large scattered place, surrounding the ditch of an ancient city now in a great degree deserted. The most compact part is a long narrow bazar or street, paved in a rough manner with bricks and stones, but in every respect of a miserable appearance. Back from this street are some respectable looking houses, surrounded by brick walls, but intermixed with hovels. There are some mosques that have been tolerable buildings, but are now in a ruinous condition. It was reduced to its present state first by the Maharattas, who sacked it in the time of Aliverdi Khan, and secondly by the great famine of 1770, since which it has never recovered. It still, however, contains about 5000 houses, and a factory dependent on the opium agent at Patna. The immediate vicinity is uncommonly fine, being supplied with many canals. A large extent is also irrigated by machinery, and under a constant succession of luxuriant crops.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

SHEIKPOOR *(Shaikhpura)*.—A town in the Bahar district, 50 miles S. E. from Patna, lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 85° 54′ E.

COOSERAH *(Cusara)*.—A town in the Bahar district, 48 miles S. E. from Patna, lat. 25° 6′ N. long. 85° 47′ E.

NAWADAH.—A town in the Bahar district, 54 miles S. S. E. from Patna, lat. 24° 54′ N. long. 85° 40′ E.

GAYA *(Gaya)*.—This is the modern capital of the Bahar district, and is situated in lat. 24° 49′ N. long. 85° E. 55 miles south from Patna. It consists of two parts; one the residence of the priests, which is Gaya Proper, the other the residence of tradesmen and others, which having been very much enlarged and ornamented by Mr. Law, is now called Sahebgunge. The old town of Gaya stands on a rocky eminence, between a hill and the Fulgo river, Sahebgunge stands on a plain, on the bank of the Fulgo, south from a hill named Ram Sila. Formerly between the two towns there was an open sandy space called the Rumnah, or chase, but the court houses have occupied a part of this, and the remainder is taken up by the houses and gardens of the few Europeans at the station. The streets in the quarter called Sahebunge are wide, perfectly straight, and kept in good order, although not paved, with a double row of trees, leaving in the middle a good road for carriages, and a foot-way on each side.

The old town of Gaya is a strange looking place, but its buildings are much better than those of the quarter named Sahebgunge, the greater part of the houses being of brick and stone, and many of them two or three stories high. The architecture is very singular, with corners, turrets, and galleries, projecting

with every possible irregularity. The streets are narrow, dirty, crooked, uneven, and encumbered with large blocks of stone, or projecting angles of rock. The reflection of the sun's rays from the rocks by which it is encompassed, and from the parched sands of the Fulgo, render Gaya uncommonly hot, and in spring it is obscured by perpetual clouds of dust. The two stations constituting Gaya, during Mr. Law's magistracy, were found to contain 6000 houses, and it is probable that at least 400 have since been added. The whole are full of population, for besides the genuine inhabitants, there are always many strangers on the spot, and the pilgrims and their followers often amount to several thousands.

Respecting this celebrated place of worship there are many Brahminical legends, of which the following has the merit of being the shortest. Gaya, an Asoor, giant and infidel, by severe penance obtained divine favour, and subjugated the three worlds, heaven, earth, and hell, to his power. The demigods bereft of their dignity, implored the assistance of Vishnu, who entered into a long contest with the Asoor, but could not overcome him. The monster, however, was so well pleased with Vishnu's prowess, that he promised to give him whatever blessing he should ask, and the latter in consequence requested him to descend into the infernal regions. The giant consented, but begged he might be pressed down by the foot of Vishnu, which was accordingly done, and the scene of action has ever since been reckoned sacred for the space of several square miles. Such is one of the Brahminical traditions; but the Buddhists ascribe the sanctity of Gaya, to its having been either the birth-place or residence of their great prophet and legislator. The British government has an agent at Gaya, who levies a tax on each pilgrim according to the magnitude of the ceremonies he means to perform. One class visiting only one place pay 2⅛ rupees; another visiting two places 3⅜ rupees; a third visiting 38 places pay 4$\frac{5}{16}$ rupees; and the fourth class visiting 45 places, 14⅛ rupees. The duty to government, however, is but a small part of the pilgrim's expense, for he is fleeced by the priests, not only of all the money he brings with him, but of promissory notes for future payments, which are sent after him when he returns home; the Gayawals, or priests of Gaya, maintaining emissaries for this purpose in the remotest parts of India which they also occasionally visit on speculation. The most numerous votaries are Bengalese and Maharattas, and some of the great chiefs of the latter have been known to expend fifty thousand rupees.

When a pilgrim arrives, his Gayawal, or religious father, conducts him to the Darogah or superintending officer, and explains to him the ceremonies which the pilgrim is desirous of performing, after which an order specifying the names of the pilgrim and Gayawal, as also of the ceremonies contemplated, is made out and signed by the collector. The duty is paid when the

order is delivered, and varies according to the number and nature of the rites to be performed. There are numberless regulations among the Gayawals for the internal management of the establishment, but the particulars have never been communicated to the public, although a translation or abstract would certainly prove curious and interesting. Formerly it was customary for the priest to keep the thumbs of the votary tied until he consented to give a sum considered proportionate to his circumstances; but the British government has declared that all contributions shall be voluntary, and the collector of the duty or the magistrate will, on complaint, compel the priest to perform his duty, and to accept whatever the pilgrim chuses to give. Persons from a distance are still much abused, but the checks imposed have rendered violence less practicable, and the introduction of the British police system so much confirmed their security that the number of these wanderers has been gradually increasing, as will appear from the following statement of the number of pilgrims who received licenses to worship at Gaya, from the 1st May 1797 to the 30th April 1798—17670.

1799	21,659	1806	23,291
1800	14,560	1807	33,831
1801	22,732	1808	32,423
1802	18,964	1809	27,952
1803	23,334	1810	27,454
1804	14,190	1811	31,114
1805	22,318		

Amount of the collection of the tax on pilgrims

	Rupees.	Charges.	Net receipts.
In 1812-13	276,890	43,450 rupees	233,439
1813-14	226,291	41,472 rupees	184,819

		Sicca rupees.
The gross collections of 1815-16 amounted to		229,805
Deduct.		
Charges of collection, &c.	7,321	
Charitable allowances, &c.	2,530	
Donation to the native hospital at Calcutta	11,000	
Proprietory share of Raja Miterjeet Singh, the zemindar on whose lands Gaya stands	26,078	
		46,929
Net receipts		182,876

It is usually supposed that the number of pilgrims and their attendants in ordinary years is not less than 100,000, but in times of peace, when visited by

any of the great Maharatta chieftains, the number probably exceeds 200,000 with many horses; nor will twenty lacks of rupees defray their expenses in these districts, where many of them reside for three months. The number of crimes that originate in the Bahar district, of which Gaya is the capital, may in a great measure be attributed to this vast crowd of pious and superstitious pilgrims.

The wealth these persons possess generally consists of money, jewels, and other articles which excite the cupidity of the unprincipled, while the defenceless condition of the greater number of these stragglers, exhibits it to them as a prey of easy acquisition. Numerous affrays and breaches of the peace may also be expected where such a number of strangers from all parts of Hindostan are promiscuously congregated. Nor will these votaries of superstition gain any addition to their prior stock of morals by their intercourse with their spiritual guides at the sanctuary (the Gayawals), who are in general both ignorant and dissolute, and do not affect even the appearance of any self denial or ascetism of conduct.—*(F. Buchanan, Harrington, Ward, Archibald Seton, &c.)*

Buddha Gaya.—The ruins of Buddha Gaya are situated a few hundred yards west from the Nilajan river, in a plain of great extent, and now consist mostly of irregular heaps of brick and stone, with some traces of having been formerly regularly arranged; but immense quantities of the materials have been removed, and the remainder are almost shapeless. The number of images scattered around this place for 15 or 20 miles is astonishing, yet they appear all to have belonged to the great temple or its vicinity, and carried from thence to different places. Buddha Gaya was probably at one time the centre of a religion, and residence of a powerful king; but the sect of Buddha in its vicinity may be considered as completely extinct, yet a few persons come occasionally from distant countries to visit its ancient monuments. The most remarkable modern edifice is a convent of Sannyasies.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

Cottee.—A town in the Bahar district, 90 miles S. by W. from Patna. Lat. 24° 21′ N. long. 84° 40′ E.

Dinapoor.—This town is situated on the south side of the river Ganges, about ten miles west of Patna, lat. 25° 37′ N. long. 85° 5′ E. The military buildings here are uncommonly grand, especially the barracks for European soldiers, which is a magnificent and elegant structure. The officers have more accommodation than in any barracks in England, and the private soldiers of the European regiments are provided with large and well aired apartments. Many of the officers of the staff and others have built neat and commodious habitations in the vicinity, and the grounds round them are well laid out, with good roads through the cantonments, and in the neighbourhood, so that the appearance of Dinapoor is greatly superior to that of Patna. In 1811, in different bazars

scattered within the cantonments were said to be 3,236 houses, and the markets afford many more comforts for Europeans than can be found in the great city adjacent. The island formed by the Ganges opposite to the cantonments of Dinapoor appears to have been carried away, and that which was the situated east from it in the middle of the river, now in a great measure adheres to the southern bank. In the rainy season a passage still continues open, but in the fair season its upper end becomes perfectly dry, and boats can no longer reach the Company's cloth factory, situated on what was formerly the bank of the river. This island in 1811 was six miles long, and where widest, about one broad. In this vicinity, potatoes are cultivated to a great extent, and are consumed both by Europeans and natives; the latter, not as a substitute for grain, but as a seasoning.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

MONEAH.—A town in the Bahar district, situated at the junction of the Sone with the Ganges, and containing commodious cavalry barracks. Lat. 25° 39′ N. long. 84° 52′ E. 21 miles west from Patna.

BAR.—A town of considerable trade in the Bahar district, and of great extent, but of mean appearance. It stands on the south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 28′ N. long. 85° 46′ E. and, including Mansurgunge, is estimated to contain 5000 houses.

ARVAL.—A town in the Bahar district, situated on the south-east side of the Sone river; 40 miles S. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 15′ N. long. 84° 44′ E.

DAUDNAGUR.—A large town in the Bahar district, situated on the east side of the Sone river, 30 miles S. S. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 5′ N. long. 84° 25′ E. This is a large place, and, including Ahmedgunge, is said to contain 8000 houses. It contains a cloth factory dependent on the commercial resident at Patna, and also a factor from the opium agent in that city.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

MAHABALIPOOR.—A small town in the Bahar district, situated on the east side of the Sone river, 35 miles S. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 20′ N. long. 84° 50′ E. According to tradition, this was once a seat of Maha Bali's, round which a town was formed.—*(Wilford, &c.)*

TICKARY *(Tikari)*.—This place contains about 500 houses, and is of modern construction, having been built in imitation of Sahebgunge, the European portion of Gaya. Lat. 24° 58′ N. long. 84° 50′ E. 50 miles S. W. from Patna. Tickary is only remarkable as being the residence of Raja Mitrajet, one of the very few remaining wealthy zemindars in the Company's old provinces; and what is still more unusual, one of the very few possessing common sense. The soil of this estate is, in general, poor, and requires much artificial watering; but in 1811, his clear income was estimated at £40,000 per annum; an immense sum in this cheap country. The fort has a substantial earthen rampart, with bastions fit for

guns, and a good wet ditch. The Tickary rajahs are military Brahmin chiefs, of the Domkatar tribe; and, until within the last century, the family lived in obscurity. The present raja has always shewn great attachment to the British government.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

Gow.—A town in the Bahar district, 52 miles S. S.W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 1′ N. long. 84° 45′ E.

Sheergotta *(Shir Ghat, the Lion Pass)*.—A small town and pergunnah in the Bahar district, 80 miles S. by W. from Patna. Lat. 24° 32′ N. long. 84° 55′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF TIRHOOT *(Trihuta.)*

This district occupies the north-western corner of the Bahar province, and is situated principally between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the jungle territories of Saptari, belonging to Nepaul; to the south by the great Ganges; on the east is the Bengal district of Purneah; and on the west the district of Sarun. In 1784, Tirhoot was estimated to contain in all its dimensions, 5033 square miles; but since that period it has been variously modified. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:— "Circar Tirhoot, containing 74 mahals, measurement 266,464 begahs. Revenue 19,179,777 dams. This Circar furnishes 700 cavalry, and 80,000 infantry."

Although not hilly, the surface of Tirhoot is more elevated, the soil drier, and the climate in general healthier, than those more to the south, yet during the summer the heat is intense. For agricultural purposes, it is plentifully supplied with water from various small rivers, and where these are not in existence, tanks and reservoirs have been constructed. In a particular quarter, embankments of considerable strength and elevation are necessary to contain the waters of the great Gunduck river, which occasionally overflows these dikes, and inundates vast tracts of country from Karnoul to Hajypoor, sweeping away whole villages, with all their cattle, inhabitants, and woods. This district throughout, is in general well cultivated; but in the north and south, tracts of waste land are found, contiguous to old zemindaries, which having remained in a state of nature and without occupant for many years, leave the boundaries of these estates undefined, and give rise to much litigation and frequent affrays. The cultivation of the soil has, notwithstanding, greatly advanced, since the first year of the decennial settlement of the land revenue, and continues progressively to increase; much waste being annually reclaimed and brought under tillage, or converted into pasture. The most valuable exportable commodities produced are sugar, indigo, saltpetre, opium, tobacco, pawn, turmeric, ginger, and rice. Towards the northern frontier there are extensive forests, but no supply of timber deserving of note can be procured for want of depth of water in the rivers

Could this be remedied, large quantities might be obtained. The principal rivers are the great Gunduck (a boundary one), the Bhagmati, and the Goggary.

In 1802, the cultivated lands were supposed to bear the proportion of three to two uncultivated, but the last probably includes land under fallow; and the produce of the rent-free lands, the proportion of 1 to 4 of those paying revenue to government: the cultivation of both appeared on an equality. In 1814, the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to 1,234,680 rupees, and the abkarry to 40,037 rupees. The saline composition named Khari, is manufactured in considerable quantities, not far from the Ganges, about 8 miles east of Singhea. The saline earth from which this is made, is called Reher, and efloresces in several pergunnahs in the districts of Tirhoot and Sarun, and is scraped together and collected at the furnace. A little rice straw is then placed on the ground, and covered with saline earth to the thickness of about 4 inches. The straw is then burned, and the burned matter is covered with a foot of straw, and this straw is also burned, which process is repeated seven times; after which, the heap is covered with some fire-wood, and burned. The burned saline matter is then dissolved in water and boiled. When the operation has succeeded well, a whitish salt, in grains, is procured, which is given to cattle; when it does not succeed, a black salt is procured in a mass, from which an excellent purging salt may be extracted.

At present there are no brick or mud forts, nor is any species of fortification to be seen, or any remarkable public building, if we except the jail, which is always the most conspicuous ornament of a Bengal district, and generally well populated. During Lord Minto's administration in 1811, it was proposed in council to establish a Hindoo college at Bhowra, in Tirhoot, which had always been a hot-bed of superstition, upon the plan of the institution at Nuddea, in the Bengal province. The establishment was intended to consist of 2 pundits at 100 rupees per month each, and 10 pundits at 60 rupees per month; the whole annual expenditure, including the library, stationary, and prizes, not to exceed the sum of 12,472 rupees. The highest prize was fixed at 800 rupees; the second 400; the third 200; and the fourth 100 rupees; and for the good scholars an honorary dress, consisting of a cloth of little value.

On account of its natural advantages in soil and climate, this district was originally selected by the British government as an eligible station for improving the breed of horses in their territories; the aboriginal race of Bengal being of the most contemptible description, and scarcely larger than mastiffs. A low and marshy soil seems uncongenial to the nature of this most noble animal, which there degenerates immediately, while it appears to thrive in arid tracts almost destitute of water. Many horses, of the first quality, have been reared in the

Hajypoor division of this district, and horse dealers from Upper Hindostan attend the fairs to purchase them. A considerable number are also annually obtained at the Government stud, for mounting the King's and Company's cavalry, besides those reared by the zemindars and others, throughout the country.

Tivabhucti, corrupted into Tirhoot, was, in the remote eras of Hindoo antiquity, a component part of Maithila, an ancient division of India, which comprehended a great proportion of three districts, (Tirhoot, Purneah, and Sarun) at present under the British government, and also part of the adjacent territory possessed by the Nepaulese. The limits of the whole were the Gunduck and Cosa rivers, and the Nepaul mountains; and within these territories a distinct dialect was spoken, still named the Maithila or Trihutya. During the wars of the Ramayuna, its sovereign was named Janaca, whose daughter, the far-famed Seeta, espoused the great Rama, whose exploits are narrated in that mythological poem. Tirhoot appears to have continued an independent Hindoo principality until A. D. 1237, when it was invaded by Toghan Khan, the Mahommedan governor of Bengal, who extorted a large sum of money from the Raja, but did not retain possession of the territory. It was finally subdued about A. D. 1325, by the Emperor Allah ud Deen, who annexed it to the throne of Delhi. Along with the rest of the province it devolved to the British government in 1765, but was not permanently assessed for the revenue until 1794. In 1801, when the population returns were ordered by the Marquis Wellesley, the inhabitants within the jurisdiction of the magistrate of this district were estimated at 2,000,000, in the proportion of 1 Mahommedan to 4 Hindoos. The principal towns are Hajypoor, Singhea, Durbunga, and Mowah.

In 1814, the general controul exercised by the magistrate over the police stations was considered as efficient as the great extent of the district and immense population would admit. Crimes of enormity were not frequent, nor were burglary and the lesser offences of frequent recurrence, although from the recent institution and augmented vigilance of the village watchmen, a comparative increase appeared in the official reports.—*(J. Grant, Colebrooke, F. Buchanan, Stewart, &c. &c. &c.)*

GUNDUCK RIVER *(Gandaki, or Salgrami)*.—The source of this river is supposed to lie near the enormous peak of Dhawala Giri, or the white mountain, supposed to be 27,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and situated about lat. 29° 30′ N. long. 83° 45′ E. Another conjecture fixes its origin in the table land of Tibet, not far from that of the Brahmaputra, which if correct, would give it a course of about 450 miles, including curvatures, until its junction with the Ganges, nearly opposite to Patna. The Gunduck in its early course is called the Salgrami, from the schistous stones, containing the remains or traces of

ammonites, found in the bed of the river, and thence carried to all parts of India, where they are worshipped under the name of Salgrams. They are mostly round, and commonly perforated in one or more places by worms; the spiral retreats of antediluvian molluscas being taken by the superstitious Hindoo for visible traces of Vishnu. Common salgrams are about as large as a watch, and they are valued according to their size, shape, and internal construction. The price varies according to circumstances, some being valued so high as 2000 rupees. In one of the Hindoo legends, the following narrative is found explanatory of their original consecration.

Vishnu, as the preserver, created nine planets to regulate the destinies of the human race. Sani (Saturn) commenced his reign by proposing to Brahma, that he (Brahma) should submit to his influence for 12 years. Brahma referred him to Vishnu; but he was equally averse to the baleful influence of this planet, and therefore desired him to call next day. On Saturn's departure, Vishnu meditated, how he could escape the misery of a twelve years subjugation to so inauspicious a luminary, and the result was, that he assumed the form of a mountain. Next day, Saturn was not able to find Vishnu, but soon discovered that he had become the mountain Gandaki, into which he immediately entered, having assumed the form of a worm, called bajra kita (the thunderbolt worm), and began to perforate the stones of the mountain, and in this manner he persevered in afflicting the animated mountain for the space of twelve years. At the end of this probation the deity resumed his own form, and directed that the stones of the mountain Gandaki should be in future worshipped. On being asked by Brahma how the genuine stones might be distinguished, he said they would have 21 marks, the same number as were on his body. Since the above era, the Salgrams of the Gunduck have been held in great estimation, and during the hot months, the Brahmins suspend a pan perforated with a hole, through which the water drops on the stone, and keeps it cool, and being caught below in another pan is, in the evening, drank with great satisfaction by the devout of that faith. The Brahmins sell these stones, but trafficking in images is reckoned dishonourable.

Besides salgrams, some few grains of gold are occasionally separated from the sand of the Gunduck, and also from the substance of the salgrams, which on trial have been found not to be calcareous. In northern Hindostan the term Gunduck is a general appellation for a river; and Major Rennell conjectures it to be the Condochates of Arrian. The stricter classes of Hindoos abstain from swimming in this river, it being forbidden in their sacred books.—*(Colebrooke, Ward, Kirkpatrick, Rennell, Wilford, &c.)*

HAJYPOOR.—The town and district of Hajypoor are now comprehended

within the jurisdiction of Tirhoot, and are situated principally about the 25th degree of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, the Hajypoor division is described as containing "11 mahals; measurement 436,952 begahs; revenue 27,331,030 dams."

The country adjacent to the town of Hajypoor is fertile, and well cultivated, and the whole district, when measured by Major Rennell in 1784, contained in all its dimensions 2782 square miles. The soil is peculiarly productive of saltpetre, and it is from hence, and the adjacent division of Sarun, that the greater part of that article intended for the Company's investment is procured. The town of Hajypoor is situated on the north-east side of the Ganges, at its confluence with the Gunduck, nearly opposite to Patna. Lat. 25° 41′ N. long. 85° 21′ E. In the month of November an annual horse fair is held in its vicinity, and the demand for horses reared in the British provinces appears to be annually increasing. In 1807, the whole number of horses exposed at the fair amounted to nearly 6000, two of which from the Company's stud sold for 4000 rupees each. At the annual fair of 1816, the shew of cattle indicated a great improvement of the breed within the districts under the influence of the stud, and a large batch of zemindary colts and fillies were purchased by the officers of the stud on government account.—*(J. Grant, &c. &c. &c.)*

Bukrah.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 32 miles N. from Patna. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 85° 10′ E.

Coille.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 48 miles N. by E. from Patna. Lat. 26° 25′ N. long. 85° 40′ E.

Singhea.—This town is situated on the east side of the river Gunduck, about 17 miles north from the city of Patna. Lat. 25° 52′ N. long. 85° 15′ E.

Near to Singhea is the site of an ancient city, where a remarkable pillar stands; and two days journey up the Gunduck river, near a place called Kesserah, is a remarkable edifice, which appears to have been originally a cylinder placed on the frustrum of a cone, for the purpose of being seen at a distance. Both the cone and cylinder are of brick, and appear solid throughout. —*(Burrow, &c.)*

Persaumah *(Parasu Rama)*.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 90 miles E. N. E. from Patna. Lat. 26° 1′ N. long. 86° 38′ E.

Durbungah *(Durbhanga)*.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 56 miles N. E. from Patna. Lat. 26° 9′ N. long. 85° 56′ E.

Jenjapoor.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 80 miles N. E. from Patna. Lat. 26° 14′ N. long. 86° 20′ E.

Nagorbussy *(Nagarabashi)*.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 42 miles N. E. from Patna. Lat. 25° 53′ N. long. 85° 51′ E.

MOWAH.—A town in the Tirhoot district, 37 miles E. from Patna. Lat. 25° 34′ N. long. 85° 50′ E.

LOKOHAR.—A small town in the Tirhoot district, 102 miles N. E. from Patna. Lat. 26° 30′ N. long. 86° 32′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF SARUN *(Sarana, an Asylum).*

This district belongs to the Bahar province, is situated about the 26th degree of north latitude, and now comprehends the district named Bettiah, or Chumparun. To the north it is bounded by Goracpoor and Muckwanpoor; on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has Tirhoot, and on the west the Dewah, or Goggrah river. In 1784, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, Sarun and Bettiah contained 5,106 square miles, of which area the particular portion distinguished by the name of Sarun comprehended 2,560 square miles. So late as 1810, a small fraction of this district continued on the south side of the great Ganges, immediately above the Dinapoor cantonments; a geographical irregularity, which probably has since been rectified. By Abul Fazel in 1582, this district is described as follows: "Circar Sarun, containing 17 mahals; measurement 229,052 begahs; revenue 16,172,004 dams. This Circar furnishes 1000 cavalry, and 50,000 infantry."

The Sarun division, for its dimensions, is one of the most prosperous in the British dominions, and has for a long period been in the highest state of cultivation. The land is plentifully supplied with moisture from two large rivers, the Ganges and the Gunduck, besides numerous smaller streams, and the soil under tillage yields abundantly all the richest productions of the east. It consequently contains scarcely any waste or jungle, so that the inhabitants are under the necessity of sending their cattle into other quarters to graze. Circar Chumparun, or Bettiah, has not been so fortunate, as it suffered severely during the great famine of 1770, when almost half the inhabitants are supposed to have perished. Besides this, the zemindars of Chumparun having for many years been deprived of their lands, which were leased to ignorant and rapacious farmers of the revenue, experienced such oppression, that the majority of the population which survived the famine, were obliged to abscond, leaving the country almost a desert. Since that melancholy epocha, the zemindars have been re-established by the decennial settlement, many of the ancient inhabitants have returned, and cultivation has been prosecuted.

The Bettiah division is situated at the northern extremity, and in 1784, when annexed to Chumparun, the aggregate area of both was 2546 square miles; and it is remarkable, that it was never properly subjugated, until after the acquisition of the dewanny by the Company in 1765. The chief towns are

Bettiah, Boggah, and Maissy; and the principal river the Gunduck, on the banks of which, and indeed all over the pergunnah, large timber trees for ship building are procured, and firs for masts. The agricultural productions of the Sarun division are of a more valuable description, consisting of opium, tobacco, wheat, barley, flax, peas, linseed, and a small quantity of cotton. The breed of cattle are also excellent, and the bullocks equal to the government standard for the ordnance department, in which respect, and for the table, they are only rivalled by those of Gujerat. It is remarkable that the natives in the adjoining districts should never have attempted to improve their own breed of cattle to the same degree of excellence. The cultivation of the district generally, is admitted to have increased since the decennial settlement of the land revenue, and in 1801 was estimated by the collector at one-fourth of the whole, which is probably too great a proportion. The rent-free lands were then computed to be one-tenth of the whole, but those liable to revenue were in the best state of cultivation. In 1801, only two zemindaries of any magnitude were held by persons professing the Mahommedan faith, that religion not appearing to have ever attained a predominance in this quarter of the province. In 1814, the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, amounted to 1,140,560 rupees, and the abkarry to the large sum of 92,825 rupees.

There are few articles of trade manufactured in Sarun, and European merchants never found the cloths manufactured here to suit that distant market. The principal mercantile commodity is saltpetre, a great part of that used throughout Bengal, and exported to Europe, being the production of Sarun. Government have two factories; one for the provision of cloth of a particular description, and the other for collecting saltpetre on the Company's account. Good roads are much wanted, as the commercial transactions of the merchants who trade from the south and east to Benares, Oude, and Nepaul, would be greatly facilitated if highways were made and kept in order, from Hajypoor to the Goggra river, from Chuprah to the frontiers of Nepaul, and from Maissy to Durouly. Almost every village had formerly a mud fort belonging to it, to which the inhabitants resorted when attacked by their neighbours. The remains of these are still visible, but in a most ruinous condition. There is not a bridge in the whole district; neither is there any institution where the Hindoo or Mahommedan law is taught. In every large village there are schools where Hindoo children are instructed in reading, writing, and accounts, for which the parents pay a weekly stipend to the teacher. In 1801, when the Marquis Wellesley issued his statistical queries, the judge and collector each returned their estimates of the population, which agreed in the aggregate of 1,200,000 for the total number of inhabitants. But a prodigious discrepancy appeared

in their respective estimates of the proportion which the Mahommedans bore to the Hindoos, the judge reckoning them one in 500, and the collector one in four. Comparing them with the adjacent districts they are probably about one in ten. *(Colebrooke, J. Grant, Boddam, J. R. Elphinstone, &c.)*

TERRIANI *(Turyani)*.—The word Turyani properly signifies low marshy land, that is navigable, the name implying a country of boats; but by the Nepaulese the term is applied to the part of their kingdom situated on the great plain of Hindostan. The British portion of the Terriani is principally comprehended in the Sarun district, and is a flat uninteresting tract, in some parts bare of trees, but generally covered with a rank vegetation. Rice is the principal produce, and herds of cattle are scattered over the country, which in the dry season abounds with game, but during the rains these are obliged to seek shelter on the higher grounds. Such is the country to the edge of the forest, which borders the base of the mountains, from which the wild elephants issue at night, and commit depredations on the neighbouring rice fields.

The Nepaulese Terriani is a belt of much greater extent, and in general about 20 miles in breadth. In this space there are a few small hills scattered, and much poor high land overgrown with trees and bushes of little value, but there is also a very large proportion of rich land, and on the whole the soil is much better than in the adjacent parts of the British territories; but being less cultivated abounds more with wild beasts, such as elephants and rhinoceroses. The breed of the former is of an inferior description, and in general has a toe of one of its feet much lengthened, which gives it an unseemly appearance. In the wet season the elephants retire to the lower ranges of hills, but in the dry season they issue forth and prove very destructive to the crops. These incursions prevent the natives from being so attentive to the rice cultivation as they would otherwise be, so that although the surface of the Nepaulese Terriani is best adapted for that grain, the farmers rely chiefly on winter crops of wheat, barley, and mustard. Tigers are not so numerous as might have been expected; black bears of a large size are very troublesome; wild hogs, hog deer, hares, foxes, and jackals are to be found in abundance.

In the waste lands of the Nepaulese Terriani, the most common trees are the palas (erythina monosperma), and the simul (bombax heptaphyllum), but by far the greater proportion of these wastes is covered with long grass or reeds, which are burned once a year, in order to clear the country and improve the pasture. Owing to the moisture and coolness of the air, the fields at all seasons preserve some verdure; but the grass seems to be of a very bad quality, as the cattle, although plentifully supplied with it, are to the last degree wretched;—yet large herds are sent into these wastes from the British districts adjacent. The

whole tract is intersected with numerous small streams, which not only answer the purposes of irrigation, but when swollen by the rains become navigable, and enable the farmer to send the produce of his fields to a distant market, as well as to float down the valuable timber that skirts the lower ranges of hills.

Before the Nepaulese conquest in this quarter, the petty Rajas who governed its different portions were so much afraid of their neighbours, that they did not promote the cultivation of this low tract; but on the contrary rather encouraged the extension of the woods, contenting themselves with its produce in timber, elephants, and pasture. Even then, however, many rich spots were occupied, and very productive, but they were so buried among the jungle as to escape observation. The Nepaulese, being more confident in their own strength, have cleared much of the country, although a great deal remains still to be done. Even now they export a great quantity of grain, and were property somewhat more secure, the territory is capable of yielding considerable resources. The tobacco produced is said to be uncommonly good, and the reddish cotton wool to be thriving. The climate is considerably cooler and moister than in the vicinity of Patna, and the hot winds, according to report, are almost a month later than at that city. About the 1st of April, however, the country becomes very unhealthy, good water for drinking scarce, and until the setting in of the cold season the people are very subject to fevers and disorders in the bowels, which by the natives of Nepaul are attributed to the ayul, or a poisonous air, which many of them imagine proceeds from the breath of large serpents, supposed to inhabit the forests of the northern mountains. The existence of such serpents in any considerable numbers, is worse than doubtful, and the unhealthiness of the climate may be accounted for from the quantity of vegetable putrefaction, stagnant water, and similar causes.

On the conclusion of hostilities in 1815, the Bengal government at first determined to insist on the entire cession of the Nepaulese Terriani, or low lands; but the experience of a season's occupation of a considerable portion, proved them of little profit as to revenue and of extremely difficult management, while the climate was so destructive as to render the continuance of troops, or civil officers for one half of the year, utterly impracticable. As a politic act of conciliation, the Terriani was in consequence restored to the Nepaulese at the conclusion of the campaign, in lieu of certain pensions to the chief Gorkha leaders, which had been before in contemplation. This was accordingly carried into execution, with the exception of that portion of the Terriani which skirted the Oude dominions, which was specially reserved, and along with a jungly pergunnah east of the Goggra, valuable to the nabob from its situation, was ceded to that potentate in extinction of one of the two crores of rupees which had been

obtained from him during the war.—*(F. Buchanan, Public MS. Documents, Kirkpatrick, &c.)*

CHUPRAH.—The capital of the Sarun district, and stands on the north side of the Ganges, 32 miles W. N. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 46′ N. long. 84° 46′ E. This is a town of little breadth, but extending along the Ganges for nearly a mile. In 1817, it contained 8,700 families, which at five persons to a family would give 43,500 inhabitants.

In the vicinity of Chuprah the Kharwa tribe are numerous. They occasionally fish and carry the palanquin, but are mostly cultivators. They migrate from hence to Calcutta, Patna, and Benares, and at Calcutta are distinguished by the name of Patna bearers, while in their own country they are mostly labourers of the soil. Although domesticated here, their original country is said to be in the neighbourhood of an old fortress called Khayra, which is in the district of Chuta Nagpoor. According to Hindoo notions they are an impure tribe, although they have abandoned many customs to which they are addicted in their original country.

On the 2d of May, 1757, Major Coote (afterwards Sir Eyre) reached this place in pursuit of a French corps under Mr. Law, being the earliest advance of the British forces in this quarter. He was not successful, but Mr. Law and his party were afterwards taken prisoners by General Carnac, on the 15th of January, 1761, after a victory obtained over the Shahzada (the Mogul emperor's son), who very soon surrendered himself without stipulation or condition.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

MANJEE.—A town in the Sarun district, situated at the confluence of the Ganges and Goggra, 44 miles N. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 49′ N. long. 84° 35′ E. There is a custom-house established here where boats ascending or descending these two rivers undergo an examination. Near to Manjee is a remarkable banyan or burr tree, of which the following are the dimensions. Diameter from 363 to 375 feet; circumference of the shadow at noon 1,116 feet; circumference of the several stems, fifty or sixty in number, 921 feet. Formerly under this tree sat a naked fakeer, who had occupied that station 25 years; but he did not continue there throughout the whole year; for his vow obliged him to lie, during the four cold months, up to the neck in the Ganges.

HOSEEPOOR.—A town in the Sarun district, 82 miles N. W. from Patna. Lat. 26° 25′ N. long. 84° 17′ E.

SEWAN *(or Alligunge)*.—A town in the Sarun district, 66 miles N. W. from Patna. Lat. 26° 11′ N. long. 84° 25′ E. In this vicinity an inferior sort of crockery is made in imitation of Staffordshire ware, from a species of black potter's marle

MANJAULY.—A town in the Sarun district, 59 miles N. W. from Chuprah. Lat. 26° 17′ N. long. 84′ E.

HATCOUL.—A town in the Sarun district, 80 miles N. from Patna. Lat. 26° 42′ N. long. 85° 28′ E.

LOWYAH.—A town in the Sarun district, 19 miles S. E. from Bettiah. Lat. 26° 34′ N. long. 84° 49′ E.

CARNOUL *(Candanur)*.—A town in the Sarun district, 48 miles N. by W. from Patna. Lat. 26° 17′ N. long. 85° 4′ E.

MAISSY *(Mahesi)*.—A town in the Sarun district, 52 miles N. from Patna. Lat. 26° 21′ N. long. 85° 10′ E.

BETTIAH *(Bhattia, named also Chumparun)*.—This town stands about 90 miles N. N. W. from Patna, and although at one time the chief town of a district, never attained any considerable magnitude. Lat. 26° 47′ N. long. 84° 40′ E.

BOGGAH.—This town stands on the east side of the Gunduck river, about 120 miles N.N.W. Lat. 27° 4′ N. long. 84° 13′ E. A great tract of country to the north of this place is still covered with primeval forests, from which excellent timber for ship-building is procured, and floated down the Ganges and Gunduck to Calcutta.

SUGOULY.—This town stands on the south side of the Boori Gunduck river, which has its source in the neighbourhood of Somaisir, and is navigable during the greater part of the year for boats of considerable burthen, as high up as Sugouly.

THE DISTRICT OF SHAHABAD.

A large district in the province of Bahar, situated about the 25th degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the course of the Ganges, on the south and east by that of the Sone, and on the west by Chunar in the province of Allahabad. In 1784, the original Circar of Shahabad contained only 1,869 square miles; but it has since been greatly augmented by incorporations from the adjacent territories. This district is extremely fertile, and in general populous; but towards the south west it still contains many tracts of waste land. In 1801, the proportion which the uncultivated land bore to the cultivated was estimated by the collector as one to four, exclusive of the hills which form the southern boundary; but the accuracy of most of the returns given in at that time cannot be depended on, not being the result of actual investigation, but in most cases of mere conjecture. The district was then (in 1801) described by the public functionaries, as being in a progressive state of improvement, the cultivation having been extended very considerably subsequent to the decennial settlement of the land revenue. The zemindar's profit was then computed to amount to 40 per cent. on the land-tax, which in 1814 yielded 1,128,515 rupees; the abkarry

or excise being 48,947 rupees. By the diligence of the revenue officers some lands have been discovered in Shahabad, not included in the revenue settlement above mentioned, but the extent is not great. In general the lands paying the land-tax are the best cultivated.

The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are opium, tobacco, cotton, sugar, indigo, and hemp, and the cultivation of all (especially of sugar) was considered to be gradually increasing. The district contains no brick or mud private forts, nor are there any schools or seminaries within its limits where the Hindoo or Mahommedan laws are taught. In 1801, in consequence of instructions from the Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-General, the board of revenue in Bengal circulated various queries on statistical subjects to the collectors of the different districts under that presidency. The result of their returns tended to establish the fact, that Shahabad contained two millions of inhabitants, in the proportion of one Mahommedan to twenty Hindoos; and it is very much in favour of their general good conduct, that only one instance of gang robbery appeared on the calendar throughout the whole of 1813.—*(J. Deane, Colebrooke, J. Shakespear, &c.)*

ARRAH.—This is the principal town of the Shahabad district, and is both extensive and populous, but we have no accurate returns of the number of inhabitants it contains. Lat. 25° 35′ N. long. 84° 40′ E. 35 miles west from Patna.

BUXAR *(Bagsar)*.—A town in the Shahabad district, situated on the south east side of the Ganges, lat. 25° 35′ N. long. 83° 57′ E. 58 miles E. N. E. from Benares. The fort here, is of considerable size, and commands the Ganges, but it is now dismantled, nor is there a single fortified place between Calcutta and Allahabad. Every boat passing up and down the Ganges is obliged to come to at this place, and produce a pass; every traveller by land does the same, the police being very strict.

A celebrated victory was gained here in October 1764, by the British forces under Major, afterwards Sir Hector Munro, over the united armies of Shuja ud Dowlah and Cossim Ali Khan. The British army consisted of 856 Europeans, and 6,215 Sepoys, of whom 87 Europeans and 712 Sepoys were killed and wounded; the combined troops were computed at 40,000 men, 2,000 of whom are supposed to have been slain in the battle. The flight of the allies was so rapid that that they did not stop at Buxar, but hastened to a nullah or small river beyond it, which being very full, many were drowned and slaughtered in attempting to pass. The plunder was very great as they left their tents standing; and their whole train of artillery, consisting of 133 pieces of various sizes, were taken. A native historian (Gholaum Hossein) describes the camp of the two chiefs while advancing, in the following terms: " A bridge of boats being thrown

over the Ganges, the allied armies begun their march in numbers not to be reckoned; but from the ignorance of the generals, and want of discipline, murdering and plundering each other. It was not an army but rather a moving nation."

Travelling distance from Benares 70 miles; from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 485, by Birboom 408 miles.—*(Lord Valentia, Forster, Rennell, &c.)*

DUNGY.—A town in the Shahabad district, 68 miles S. W. from Patna. Lat. 25° 10′ N. long. 81° 10′ E.

SASSERAM *(Sahasram)*.—A town in the Shahabad district, 34 miles south from Buxar. Lat. 24° 58′ N. long. 83° 58′ E. Shere Khan, the Afghan, who expelled the Emperor Humayoon (the father of Acber) from Hindostan, was buried here, in a magnificent mausoleum, built in the middle of a great reservoir of water. The monument rises from the centre of the tank, which is about a mile in circumference, and bounded on each side by masonry; the descent to the water being by a flight of steps now in ruins. The dome and the rest of the building is of a fine grey stone, at present greatly discoloured by age and neglect.—*(Hodges, &c.)*

MOONEER *(Manir)*.—A small town in the Shahabad district, 42 miles E. by S. from Benares. Lat. 25° 12′ N. long. 83° 40′ E.

RHOTAS *(Rahatas)*.—A town and pergunnah in the Shahabad district, the most westerly of the Bahar province, being bounded in that direction by the Caramnassa river. In 1784, the Rhotas territorial subdivision contained 3,680 square miles, of which only 2,000 were plain arable ground, the rest being hilly and much covered with jungle. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Rhotas, containing 18 mahals; measurement 473,340 begahs, revenue 40,819,493 dams. This Circar furnishes 4,550 cavalry, and 162,000 infantry."

The fortress of Rhotas is situated on the level top of an extensive mountain, about 81 miles travelling distance S. E. from Benares. Lat. 24° 38′ N. 83° 50′ E. A. D. 1542, Shere Shah, the Afghan, took this fortress, until then deemed impregnable, by a very shallow stratagem, from Raja Chintamun, the last of a long dynasty of Hindoo sovereigns, who had for many centuries ruled this part of Hindostan. Shere Shah made it a depot for his family and treasure; but after his death it must have again reverted to the Hindoos, as in 1575, it was captured from a Raja of that faith by the Emperor Acber. For many years subsequent to the conquest of Bahar by the British, an opinion was very prevalent among the natives, that treasure to a large amount had been concealed in this vicinity, under ground, by Cossim Ali, or his agents, when compelled to evacuate the province in 1764. Positive native testimony being produced as to the exact spot, search in 1813 was made, by orders from Calcutta, at the village of Tellotho near Rhotas; but nothing was found except 50 brass utensils, belonging

to a widow of the deceased proprietor of the premises where the search was made. This unexpected discovery being notified to the supreme government the widow was desired to account for the locality of these brazen vessels, which she did by declaring, that she had buried them three years before that date, during an irruption of some plunderers into the district of Mirzapoor, which assertion, the appearance of the metal, and some other circumstances which need not be detailed, tended to confirm.—*(Stewart, Public MS. Documents, J. Grant, &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF RAMGHUR *(Ramaghara).*

A hilly and mountainous district, the jurisdiction of which, since it has been new modelled and extended, occupies the whole southern quarter of the Bahar province. To the north it is bounded by the district of Bahar Proper; on the south by Jushpoor; Gangpoor, and Singboom; to the east it has Boglipoor, and Burdwan, and on the west Billounja, Sirgoojah, and Jushpoor. Besides the territory specifically named Ramghur, it now comprehends Palamow, Pachete, and Chuta Nagpoor, and a great part may be considered as properly belonging to the ancient Hindoo province of Gundwana.

In 1784, Chuta Nagpoor, Palamow, and Ramghur, according to Major Rennell's mensuration, contained 21,732 square miles, of which 16,732 were nearly waste.

A great proportion of this division is from its situation rocky and unproductive, and can never be brought into a populous or cultivated condition, unless great encouragement be held out to clear the hitherto impenetrable woods and fastnesses; and such is the uncivilized state of the district generally, that the natives cannot be expected to comprehend the laws by which they are governed. Commercial transactions are very insignificant, and confined mostly to the mere interchange and barter of commodities for domestic consumption. The hills abound with iron, which is collected and fused by the natives in their rude manner, and is the principal article of exportation, but the want of navigable rivers is a great obstruction to the extension of this traffic. Cultivation on the whole is improving, and barley has been introduced among the hill inhabitants since the British conquest. Within the Ramghur jurisdiction there are two roads of importance. The first is the great military road, which extends from Assoonsur to Barroon, on the banks of the Sone, 246 miles, and is usually repaired at the expense of government; the other is one from Sheregotty, which joins the abovementioned great military road at Konnah Chitty. On the military road there were formerly from 30 to 40 bridges, but most of them have been swept away by the floods. There are many old brick forts in Ramghur, the

destruction of which was recommended by the magistrate at an early period of the British domination, as they afforded protection to refractory zemindars, and hordes of irregular banditti. There are here few durable buildings, and none at all for religious purposes. Neither are there any private schools or seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahommedan law, education not extending beyond the accomplishments of reading and writing.

In Ramghur, the mouhur tree grows spontaneously, and in great abundance among the rocky and otherwise barren parts of the mountains, and provides the natives with a convenient substitute for grain, as it will keep, when pulverized, for a whole season. By the natives, however, it is principally used for making an infusion like tea, which affords a nourishing and healthy beverage, but this process has been construed as coming within the regulations against illicit distillation. The principal rivers are the Dummodah and Burrakur, and the principal towns, Chittra (containing the head quarters and the jail), Ramghur, and Muckundgunge. The district is thinly inhabited, and a very great majority of the inhabitants are Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion, but accurate returns of these particulars have not yet been published. One estimate makes the inhabitants of Ramghur Proper amount to half a million, in the proportion of one Mahommedan to 30 Hindoos. The Rajah of Chuta Nagpoor, who formerly exercised an independent jurisdiction within the limits of his own territories, is the highest in rank; but there are besides many zemindars of extensive possessions and considerable personal influence, the Ramghur division being probably one of the least regularly arranged within the British sovereignty.

This district has long been distinguished for the numerous crimes and devastation which occasioned annually the loss of many good soldiers from the unhealthiness of the country. The inhabitants of the adjacent plains have an unconquerable aversion to the hills, owing to the pestilential distempers they are liable to, as well as to the extreme barbarity of the hill natives, and the abundance of beasts of prey, such as tigers, bears, wolves, and hyenas.

Theft is common throughout Ramghur, but murder, more prevalent among a particular class, which are the slaves possessed by persons inhabiting the mountainous and inaccessible interior, and of savage and ferocious habits. When petty disputes occur, these slaves are compelled by their masters to perpetrate any enormity, and are more especially employed for the purposes of assassination. Any hesitation or repugnance on the part of the slave is attended with immediate death, which is equally his fate should he fail in the attempt. On the other hand, if he succeed, he is sought out by the officers of government and executed as a murderer. The usual police have hitherto been unable to seize the cowardly instigator, and if recourse be had to a military force, he re-

tires into the jungles. On the occurrence of such an event, the whole country is thrown into confusion and rebellion, during which, many unoffending persons lose their lives; and the troops, after many ineffectual efforts to execute the magistrate's orders, return to their stations worn out with fatigue, and their numbers thinned by the pestilential atmosphere of the jungles. Neither do the slaves attach the slightest idea of guilt to the murders they are thus delegated to commit; on the contrary, when seized, they always confess, and appear to expect applause for having done their duty. Murder is here also frequently committed through the mere ignorance and superstition of the people, who often put individuals to death under a belief that they possess magical influence, and make a destructive use of their knowledge.

As may be supposed from the above description, the police of Ramghur is far from having attained even the distant approach to perfection, which is to be found in some of the other districts subject to the British authority. In 1813, the number of gang robberies committed exceeded those of 1812, and some of them were attended with circumstances of great enormity. In the year last mentioned, several of the dacoit gangs were led by the former proprietors of two small estates, sold by auction about nine years before, for arrears of revenue. Highway robbery, by gangs of from five to twenty persons, is the most prevalent offence, and the apprehension of the delinquents, owing to the nature of the country, difficult. Pilgrims, to the different places of Hindoo worship, who usually have some ready cash about them, are the most frequent sufferers on these occasions. In 1814, the police of Ramghur had not undergone any very essential improvement, and some of the local arrangements were considered by the superintendant of the lower provinces to be defective. The residence of the magistrate was usually above the ghauts or passes into the mountains, and circumstances frequently rendered his visiting places also within the ghauts necessary. In this predicament it became difficult for him to exercise an effectual controul over the territory adjoining to Bahar Proper, which state of things would naturally suggest the expediency of transferring all such places to the latter district. But here obstacles presented themselves, the jurisdiction of Bahar being already so extensive, that the management of any addition of magnitude would be utterly beyond the natural powers of any single judge and magistrate. To obviate this objection as far as practicable, it was recommended that a joint magistrate should be stationed at Sherighautty.—*(W. T. Smith, J. Shakespear, Lord Teignmouth, J. Grant, &c.)*

CHITTRA.—This is the chief town of the Ramghur district and residence of the judge and magistrate; yet, on account of the thick and impenetrable jungles by which it is surrounded, it has never been considered safe to work the convicts

beyond the precincts of the town. It stands in lat. 24° 10′ N. long. 84° 50′ E. about 110 miles S. by W. from Calcutta.

KOONDAH.—A town and pergunnah in the Ramghur district, 105 miles S.S.W. from Patna. Lat. 24° 20′ N. long. 84° 38′ E.

MUCKUNDGUNGE *(Mucundaganj)*.—A town in the Ramghur district, 114 miles S. by E. from Patna. Lat. 23° 57′ N. long. 85° 25′ E.

PARSONAUTH *(Parswanatha)*.—Samet Sichara, called in Major Rennell's map, Parsonauth; is situated among the hills bordering Bahar and Bengal. Its holiness is held in great estimation by the Jainas, and it is said to be visited by pilgrims from the remotest parts of India. Parswa, or Parswannah, the 23d deified saint of the Jainas, and who perhaps was the real founder of the sect, was born in the suburbs of Benares, and died at the age of 100 years, on mount Sammeya, or Samet.—*(Colebrooke, &c.)*

RAMGHUR.—This town is situated on the banks of the Dummodah river, about 190 miles N. W. from Calcutta, and originally gave its name to the district, but it has since fallen to a secondary rank. Lat. 23° 38′ N. long. 85° 43′ E.

MUCKUNDGUNGE *(Mucunda ganj)*.—This town stands about 114 miles S. by E. from Patna, and has a lead mine situated about 10 miles further west. Lat. 23° 57′ N. long. 85° 25′ E.

BIGH *(Bhiga)*.—A town in the Ramghur district, 90 miles south from Patna. Lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 85° 12′ E.

JAULDA.—A town in the Ramghur district, 165 miles N. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 23° 23′ N. long. 85° 56′ E.

PALAMOW *(Palamo)*.—This hilly and jungly territory belongs to the Bahar province, and now forms part of the jurisdiction subordinate to the judge and magistrate of Ramghur. It extends from the southern extremity of Ontaree to Burwa, a dependency of Chuta Nagpoor, a distance of 65 miles; the whole extent of which formerly confined on the Maharatta pergunnahs of Sirgoojah and Jushpoor, and comprehends many ghauts or passes, of various degrees of strength and facility. But although the scarcity of grain and density of the woods might stop the ingress of a regular army, it has been experimentally proved, that they present no insurmountable obstacles to the predatory incursions of the Pindarries. There are no rivers of any magnitude, but many small streams and rivulets, and the soil is in many parts strongly impregnated with iron. The revenue imposed on the Raja of Palamow was originally only 12,182 rupees; yet in 1805, Raja Chooramun Ray, the zemindar, was 17,199 rupees in arrears; a situation owing to several causes, but chiefly to the inbecility of his own character.

In the month of December, 1800, a very general insurrection broke out in the

zemindary of Palamow, at the head of which was Booraun Singh, and a number of Cheroo leaders, who plundered and destroyed property belonging to the Raja and other land proprietors to a great amount; and they, for their own protection, were obliged to entertain a great many irregular foot soldiers. On the approach of Colonel Jones with a detachment, the insurgents fled into Sirgoojah, and being there supported, so infested the division, that in 1801, it became necessary to march two battalions into Sirgoojah, for the purposes of enforcing adequate reparation for these outrages. On this expedition Colonel Jones was accompanied by the Palamow Raja, which involved him in great expense; and in consequence of this alleviating circumstance, a great proportion of the arrears were then forgiven to the Raja by the Bengal government.

In 1814, arrears having again accumulated to the amount of 55,700 rupees, owing to the incapacity of the Raja Chooramun Ray, and the refractory conduct of the disaffected Jaghiredars, (a species of permanent tenants,) this unfortunate pergunnah was brought to the hammer, and purchased by government for 51,000 rupees. The general regulations for the public dues and administration of justice, had before extended to this estate, in common with the other places dependent on the Bengal presidency; but in consequence of the wild state of the country, consisting chiefly of hills and forests, and the rude manners of its inhabitants, these regulations could not be said to have more than a nominal operation in the interior. In fact, the realization of the revenue partook more of the nature of voluntary contributions, than of that active and punctual enforcement of the rights of government, which was practised in all the other old districts, and from which the landholders of Palamow had no peculiar claims to exemption. Besides these reasons, being a frontier station, it became of importance to vest the possession of the pergunnah in a person possessed of sufficient firmness to coerce the Jaghiredars, without oppressing them by illegal exactions or other severities.

For the accomplishment of these purposes Raja Futteh Singh was selected, but he died in 1814, while the arrangement was under discussion, and at the recommendation of Captain Edward Roughsedge, then commanding the Ramghur Battalion, the rights of government were transferred to his son Raja Gunshaun Singh. In effecting this measure government made a considerable pecuniary sacrifice; but the object proposed to be carried into execution were important; as, besides rewarding a loyal and meritorious family, it provided for the internal management of the estate, for the realization of the revenue, and eventually for the general protection of a vulnerable frontier. It was at the same time deemed of primary moment, that the rights and immunities of the Jaghiredars should be maintained inviolate, for the furtherance of which object it was ordered that the

amount of land-tax payable by each Jaghiredar respectively, should be endorsed on the back of the document which transferred the district to Raja Gunshaun Singh, in order to prevent future litigation and to give stability to the arrangement. Nor did the prior zemindar, Raja Chooramun Ray, sustain any real injury by the sale of his estate, he had long been a mere cipher in its management; and nearly an ideot in understanding, dissolute, extravagant, and thoughtless, a character which unfortunately applies with too much justice to almost all the jungle zemindars. He was so indolent as wholly to abandon his station and responsibility, and was always ready to give a carte-blanche to any person who would undertake to supply him with 5 or 6 rupees daily for his personal expenses. This miserable chief of a distracted territory had no lineal heirs, and the collateral pretender was utterly unfit for the vocation.

The tenures of the Jaghiredars (a term borrowed by the Hindoos from the Mahommedans) in Palamow are rather of a singular description, and are said to be coeval with the establishment of the late zemindar's family 22 years ago; but there is no doubt that they were all originally removeable by the Rajas, who before the promulgation of the British code, exercised the power of life and death without curb or restraint, and the renewal of the sunnuds, or grants, at the succession of each Raja, decides the discretional power to grant or withhold it. Like the rest of the Ramghur judicial division, Palamow is extremely thinly inhabited, and on account of the irregular and rocky nature of its surface, and the want of navigable rivers, will probably never attain any very numerous population. At present it does not contain any collection of habitations larger than an ordinary village.—*(Public MS. Documents, Roughsedge, Broughton, &c.)*

PALAMOW.—This village, from which the zemindary derives its name, stands in lat. 23° 50′ N. long. 84° 8′ E. 135 miles S. W. from Patna.

PACHETE *(Pacher)*.—A zemindary in the province of Bahar, at present mostly incorporated with the district of Ramghur. This large landed estate is bounded by Chuta Nagpoor and Ramghur, and in 1784 contained about 2779 square miles. It was once a frontier territory towards the western confines of Bengal, and still retains much of the sterility and barbarism of the neighbouring uncouth and mountainous region to the south. The unhealthiness of the climate has been proved by its destructive effects on the troops stationed at Jaulda. The principal towns are Pachete, Chatna, and Jaulda, which with the zemindary, were formerly held by a Rajpoot family named Narrain. The town of Pachete stands in lat. 23° 36′ N. long. 86° 50′ E. about 126 miles N. W. from Calcutta. Coal of a good quality has been found on this estate.—*(J. Grant, &c. &c.)*

CHATNA.—A town in the Ramghur district. miles N. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 23° 20′ N. long. 87° E.

ROGONAUTPOOR.—A town in the Ramghur district, 130 miles N. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 23° 32′ N. long. 86° 44′ E.

CHUTA NAGPOOR *(Little Nagpoor)*.—This large zemindary is situated at the southern extremity of the province, and is now incorporated with the judicial division of Ramghur. It is bordered on the southern, eastern, and western quarters by the ancient Hindoo province of Gundwana, and was never completely subjugated by the Mahommedans, although the Rajas were reduced to the condition of tributaries by the Mogul viceroys of Bengal; yet they were little interfered with so long as their contributions were punctually paid. This is an extensive hilly tract and much covered with wood, fostered with great care by the Rajas as a protection against invasion from without, and the nature of the country is such, as would render it very difficult and expensive either to penetrate or subdue, on account of the unhealthy jungles, so deleterious to troops not born on the spot. Like other hilly districts, Chuta Nagpoor contains the sources of many streams, but they do not swell to any considerable size until they quit its limits and reach the low grounds. Beneath the surface iron ore is found in abundance; but this useful metal can be imported from Europe on such moderate terms, that its collection and fusion here present no encouragement to the speculator. The impervious jungles here conceal many strange tribes, who, even at this late period of Hindoo predominance, have not become converts to the Brahminical doctrines, and are consequently classed by the priests among the abominable. The Khetauri, the Koeri, and the Dhanggar, are still the principal inhabitants of Chuta Nagpoor, where it is said that the latter, and probably also the former, do not speak the Hindi language. The Dhanggar are still impure, and probably unconverted or Mlechchas. The principal towns are Burwa and Maharajegunge.

For many years subsequent to the British conquest, the Rajas of Chuta Nagpoor, of the Sahi family, assumed and exercised independent powers, the Bengal government having never investigated or determined the validity of their claims to such authority, they were consequently by the natives considered merely as tributaries, and of course entitled to independent jurisdiction within the limits of their own territories. Raja Deonauth Sahi would never allow that he was any further subordinate to the British government than as a tributary; indeed his political relations do not appear to have ever been clearly defined. He appears neither to have been recognized as a sort of independent chief, although a tributary; nor as a zemindar holding lands liable to revenue. If the first, the provincial courts of justice had no right to question any of his acts, so long as he confined them to his own country; if the second, he was amenable, like any other land-holder, to the regular process of the law, and of course liable to punishment

for contumacy. Prior to 1807, no decree of the Ramghur court of justice, disagreeable to the Nagpoor Raja, or rather to his dewan Dialnauth, had any effect within his district, unless backed by a detachment, and with such assistance the influence was merely temporary, until the troops had returned to their cantonments. In that year Raja Govindnaut Sahi Deo consented to the introduction of a systematic police into his country, and to enter into the usual engagements to render it efficient; but it became perfectly evident during the negotiation that he had no intention of ever carrying it into execution. The authority of the British magistrate, consequently, within his zemindary, continued merely nominal, and was obeyed or not, as the Raja and his cabinet felt disposed. When called on to assist in the apprehension of criminals, the person bearing the summons was usually subjected to personal chastisement, as an intruder into a territory where the British jurisdiction was not recognized.

The late and present Rajas of Chuta Nagpoor have adhered with singular perseverance to the resolution of holding no personal intercourse, or communication with the magistrates of the district, or with any of the public functionaries, preserving towards them, and all other Europeans, the most rigid invisibility. This preposterous determination they justified by a pretended vow, which they say the Raja who conquered the country ordered to be exacted from all his successors; but the consequence has been that the lives and properties of his semi-barbarous subjects and their descendants, have always been at the mercy of an unprincipled dewan, or prime minister, who without any personal interest in the prosperity of the district, considers it his duty to withhold every information that is likely to interfere with his own usurped authority. This was practically experienced in 1803, when Colonel Broughton first endeavoured to penetrate through Chuta Nagpoor into Sumbhulpoor. On this occasion he was furnished by the Marquis Wellesley with mandates, addressed to all the frontier zemindars, enjoining their zealous co-operation; but the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor was scarcely at the trouble to conceal his inclination to frustrate the expedition, and as a measure tending to effect this object, he made his dewan join the camp, with the view of preventing any well-disposed native from giving information, and to impede the advance of the detachment. The first native who joined and pointed out a practical road suddenly disappeared, and, notwithstanding a very active search, was never after heard of.

In this manner the Raja, or rather his ministers, continuing to manifest the utmost contumacy, and a systematic resistance to the orders of government, a small force was at last, in 1809, marched into his country under the command of Captain E. Roughsedge, on the approach of which, the Raja, with a perturbation habitual to such recluses, quitted his capital, Maharajigunge, and fled into the

neighbouring jungles, where he endeavoured to persevere in his hereditary invisibility. Letters were dispatched to him by a private and confidential servant of his own, and also by two of his uncles; but the infatuated chief resisted all persuasions for his return to Chuta Nagpoor, and withdrew further into the interior of Singhboom, where he remained so inaccessible, that when a letter was sent to him by a private messenger, the bearer was detained twenty miles distance from his actual residence for six days, and afterwards sent back with a reply, which, as all his servants had the unlimited use of his seal and signature, never could be established as genuine, nor could it be ascertained that the letter sent to him ever reached his hands. The object to be obtained by the employment of this detachment, was the establishment of the authority of government over an immense estate, the proprietor of which, taking advantage of the impenetrable nature of his country, had long contemned the supreme power, both with respect to the payment of his revenue, and in all questions connected with the support of the police and the administration of justice. Both these objects were attained, and the country brought under proper subordination, but of course with a great diminution of the Raja's personal authority, and the total annihilation of his minister's. For these severities, however, he was entirely indebted to the extreme folly of his measures, for prior to his misconduct, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor probably possessed his zemindary on terms more advantageous than any other subject of the British government. In 1805 it was calculated, that from the tenants he realized 160,000 rupees per annum, while the land-tax he paid was only 13,000 rupees per annum. With this revenue he usually supported an armed rabble of 2000 men, and in 1805 Colonel Broughton estimated that the population of the country, if well-disposed, might furnish him 20,000 more.

This sub-division of Bahar is designated by the term Chuta (little) to distinguish it from the other Nagpoor possessed by the Bhoonslah Maharatta family, and the name (Nagpoor) indicates that in the opinion of the natives the territory contains diamonds.—*(Roughsedge, Sealey, Col. Broughton, &c. &c.)*

Burwa.—This town stands 240 miles W. N. W. from the city of Calcutta, and its vicinity, named Hazary Baugh, is usually the head quarters of the officer commanding the Ramghur provincial corps of sepoys. Lat. 23° 20′ N. long. 84° 46′ E.

In 1801 the territories of Hurry Ram Sahy, the Raja of Burwa, were overrun and conquered by the neighbouring Raja of Sirgoojah, and not being supported by his immediate superior the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor, he was obliged to submit to the invader, whose troops kept possession several years, but retreated on learning the approach of a British detachment under Colonel Jones. Conceiving this a favourable opportunity, the Raja of Chuta Nagpoor determined to attempt

its reconquest, but he stood not the least chance of success had not the British commander, and the magistrate of Ramghur, advised the Burwa chief to submit on the assurance of personal safety. He was in consequence induced to trust himself in the hands of the Raja's officers, who two days afterwards sent him under escort to Palcote, within a mile of which place he was taken out of his palanquin, and put to death in cold blood by the party guarding, who had been selected for this atrocious purpose. On this occasion no judicial inquiry was instituted, nor did it come to the knowledge of the Bengal government until 1807, so imperfectly was this portion of their dominions subdued, or even explored.—*(Roughsedge, &c.)*

DOESSAH.—A town in Chuta Nagpoor, 213 miles W. N. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 23° 11′ N. long. 85° 16′ E.

PALCOTE *(Palacata)*.—A small town in Chuta Nagpoor 220 miles W. by N. from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 84° 40′ E.

BUSSEAH.—A small town in Chuta Nagpoor, 210 miles, W. N. W. from Calcutta. Lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 85° 11′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF ALLAHABAD.

A LARGE province of Hindostan Proper, situated between the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Oude and Agra; to the south by the Hindoo province of Gundwana; on the east it has the provinces of Bahar and Gundwana; and on the west Malwah and Agra. In length it may be estimated at 270 miles by 120, the average breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this province is described as follows: "Soubah Allahabad is situated in the second climate. Its length, from Sunjowly Juanpoor to the southern provinces, is 160 coss, and the breadth from Chowsa Ferry to Gautumpoor includes 122 coss. To the east it has Bahar, on the north Oude, Baundhoo (Gundwana) lies on the south, and Agra on the west. The principal rivers of this soubah are the Ganges and Jumna; besides which are the Aruna, the Geyn, the Seroo, the Biruah, and several smaller ones. This soubah contains ten districts; viz. 1, Allahabad; 2, Ghazipoor; 3, Benares; 4, Juanpoor; 5, Manicpoor; 6, Chunar; 7, Bahtgorah; 8, Callinger; 9, Korah; 10, Kurrah. These districts are subdivided into 177 pergunnahs; the revenue being 5,310,695 sicca rupees, and 1,200,000 betel nut leaves. It furnishes 11,375 cavalry, 237,870 infantry, and 323 elephants."

During the reign of Aurengzebe, the arrangements of this province were new modelled; the division of Bhatta, or Baundhoo, which properly belongs to Gundwana, having been added to it. This territory was then considered as a new conquest, although long before partially subdued, and was subdivided into six lesser jurisdictions; 1, Bhatta; 2, Sohagepoor; 3, Choteesghur, or Ruttunpoor; 4, Sumbhulpoor; 5, Gangpoor; and 6, Jushpoor, which were all formally annexed to Allahabad. With this addition of 25,000 square miles of a high mountainous unproductive country, Allahabad then comprehended 60,000 square miles; but as the last mentioned tract was never thoroughly reduced to subjection, or occupied, it is much better in a geographical point of view that it were restored to the province of Gundwana, where in remote antiquity it composed part of the Gond state of Gurrah. In 1747, the existing subdivisions of this province were, 1, Allahabad; 2, Kurrah; 3, Korah; 4, Tarhar; 5, Manicpoor; 6, Benares; 7, Juanpoor; 8, Ghazipoor; 9, Chunar; 10, Callinjer; 11,

Ahmedabad Gohrah; 12, Bhatta. At present the principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following:—

1. District of Allahabad,
2. Benares,
3. District of Mirzapoor,
4. District of Juanpoor,
5. The Rewah territory,
6. District of Bundelcund,
7. District of Caunpoor,
8. Manicpoor territory.

The surface of this province adjacent to the rivers Ganges and Jumna is flat and very productive; but to the south-west, in the Bundelcund territory, the country forms an elevated table land, diversified with high hills, and abounding in strong holds. This portion of the province does not admit of such complete cultivation, but it contains within its limits the famous diamond mines of Pannah. Between these two divisions there is also a considerable difference of climate; the former being extremely sultry, and subject to hot winds, from which the latter is exempted. The principal rivers in the north are the Ganges, Jumna, Goomty, and Caramnassa, besides many smaller streams, which supply an abundant moisture, and render several of the subdivisions, especially those of Benares and Allahabad, among the most fertile in Hindostan. In the hilly country to the south-west, the rivers are few, and smaller, the Kena and Goggra being the principal. The periodical rains and the water procured with considerable labour from wells are consequently, in this quarter, chiefly relied on; but upon the whole, Allahabad may be reckoned one of the most productive provinces of India.

The exports from this country are diamonds, saltpetre, opium, sugar, indigo, cotton, cotton cloths, &c.; the imports are various, salt from the maritime parts of Bengal being one of the principal articles in regular demand. Within the limits of the province are many large and celebrated towns, such as Benares, Allahabad, Callinjer, Chatterpoor, Juanpoor, Mirzapoor, Chunar, and Ghazipoor. The total population is very considerable, and may be estimated to exceed seven millions in the proportion of one Mahommedan to eight Hindoos. In the remote times of Hindoo antiquity, this province must have held a high rank, as it contains the Chief Prayaga (Allahabad) and Benares, two of the holiest places of Brahminical pilgrimage, and the latter occupying in Hindostan the station which three centuries back Rome did in Christendom. At present the whole of this extensive province is comprehended within the limits of the British jurisdiction, and governed with a few modifications by the Bengal code of regulations, with the exception of a small portion of the Bundelcund division, which is held by petty native chiefs under British protection.

We learn from Abul Fazel, that the territory composing the modern province of Allahabad was invaded so early as A. D. 1020, by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni,

who made a few compulsory converts to the Mahommedan faith. He returned again in 1023, but made no permanent establishment. It was afterwards wholly subdued by the Patan emperors of Delhi, and during the 15th century formed the basis of an independent kingdom, the capital of which was Juanpoor. Along with the other Patan conquests it devolved to the Moguls, and was formed into a distinct soubah by the Emperor Acber, who new named the Hindoo Sanctuary (or Prayaga) Allahabad, an appellation it still retains. After the fall of the Mogul dynasty, the northern quarter was appropriated by the Nabobs of Oude; but in 1764, Korah and Allahabad were ceded to Shah Allum, the then nominal and fugitive sovereign of Delhi, through the interference of Lord Clive, with Shuja ud Dowlah, the Nabob of Oude. In 1772, they reverted to the latter, when that ill advised monarch of his own accord returned to Delhi, and became an engine of mischief in the custody of the Maharattas.

The Bengal government acquired the Benares districts by treaty with Asoph ud Dowlah, in 1775, and Allahabad and the adjacent territories in 1801, by cession from Saadet Ali, his successor on the throne of Oude. The south eastern districts were received from the Maharatta Peshwa in 1803, in exchange for an equivalent tract in the Carnatic above the ghauts and Gujerat.—*(Abul Fazel, J. Grant, 5th Report, Ironside, &c.)*

JUMNA RIVER *(Yamuna)*.—This river has its source on the south-west side of the great Himalaya range, near the lofty peak of Jumoutri, estimated at 25,000 feet above the level of the sea. In April, 1817, when visited by Captain Hodgson, the snow at Jumoutri, which covered and concealed the stream of the Jumna, was 60 yards wide, and bounded on the right and left by mural precipices of granite. This mass of snow had fallen from the heights above, and when measured by a plumb line let down through one of the holes caused by the stream of a boiling spring, was found to be 40 feet thick. The mean latitude of these hot springs is 30° 58′ N. from whence the Jumna flows south through the province of Gurwal, where at Kalsee Ghaut it is joined by the Tonse, which, at the point of junction, is the largest of the two. In this part of its course, it runs nearly parallel with the Ganges, and at the village of Guradwar, where they are only 40 miles distant, it has as broad a stream.

The Jumna enters Hindostan Proper in the imperial province of Delhi, and proceeds S. S. E. nearly in a line with the Ganges, at the distance of from 50 to 75 miles from each other, until they gradually join at Allahabad, when the Jumna, although little inferior in magnitude has its name absorbed by the larger and more holy stream. Including the windings, the length of its course may be estimated at 780 miles. This river is only a useful barrier to the British territories during the rainy season, when military operations are, from

the general state of the country, almost impracticable. It is fordable in several places above Agra before the 1st of October, and cannot be looked upon as a boundary of any strength above its junction with the Chumbul, ten miles below Etaweh, for more than a few weeks of the wet season. From Calpee to its junction with the Ganges there is no obstruction, and only one place between Calpee and Etaweh, where, in the dry season, the passage is rendered in some degree difficult by a bank of limestone, which it was the intention of the British government during the administration of the Marquis Wellesley to have removed; but which does not appear to have been yet effected. Except in the spot alluded to, the stream of the Jumna is both larger and deeper than that of the Ganges.

Prior to the British acquisition of the Doab, the merchants from the westward were accustomed to convey their merchandize by land-carriage to Futtehghur, where the goods were embarked and conveyed down the Ganges to Allahabad. The merchants were induced to take this circuitous route, and to submit to the inconvenience of land carriage, as well as to the vexatious duties then levied, from the just apprehensions of the depredations to which their boats were exposed in their passage down the Jumna, from the numerous bands of robbers which infested the shores of that river.

In Hindoo mythology, Yamuna (Jumna) is the sister of Yama, the judge of the infernal regions, and also the daughter of the sun, so that her lineage is respectable. The name is common to many Indian rivers, and has been variously corrupted by Europeans into Emona, Jumna, and Jabuna.—*(Captain Hodgson, Sir John Malcolm, Sir H. Wellesley, Lieutenant Blane, &c. &c.)*

CARAMNASSA RIVER *(Carma ,nasa, the destruction of pious works).*—A small winding river which separates the province of Bahar from that of Benares. On crossing this river on service from Bahar, the Bengal officers were formerly considered as having quitted the Company's territories, and received an additional rate of pay, to defray the increased expenses to which they were subjected by their distance from the presidency.

By an ancient text, the Hindoos were forbidden even to touch the waters of the Caramnassa, but the inhabitants on its banks claim an exemption, which is admitted by the other Hindoos, although their aversion to the Caramnassa continues as strong as ever. By the contact alone of its baneful waters, pilgrims suppose they lose the fruit and efficacy of their religious austerities and pilgrimages, and they always cross it with the utmost caution. Major Rennell thinks it is the Commenases of Arian.—*(Wilford, Forster, &c.)*

KEN RIVER.—This stream has its source among the Vindhyan mountains, 25 miles N. from the Nerbuddah, from whence it proceeds in a northerly direc-

tion inclining to the east, with an extremely meandering course, watering the large district of Bundelcund. After a course including the windings of about 240 miles, it falls into the Jumna, which it resembles in having very high banks, broken by numerous ravines. Its channel abounds with pebbles of agate and jasper, which are not so much variegated by zones of different colours, or dendritical figures, nor do they contain so much crystalized matter, as those of the Sone; but the jaspers are more perfect, and are red, honey colour, and black; some of the latter admitting of a fine polish. Major Rennell thinks this river is the Cainas, or Cane, of Pliny; in the modern maps it is named the Cane, and Keane.—*(F. Buchanan, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF ALLAHABAD.

This judicial subdivision of the province is mostly composed of territory immediately adjacent to the city of Allahabad, and is intersected by the great rivers Ganges and Jumna, but the geographical distribution is ill arranged, as some portions of it are 90 and 100 miles from the residence of the magistrate. The soil, where properly cultivated, is remarkably fertile, and yields large returns to the husbandman. Wheat is the principal crop, and the land most favourable for its production, a rich sandy loam, which is a very common soil in this vicinity. They begin to plough with the commencement of the rains in June, and only a single stirring is given to the ground until they cease. The field is then ploughed 15 times before the reception of the seed, a proceeding which establishes (if any doubt had been entertained) the inefficacy of the Hindostany plough. September and October are the months for sowing. During the dry season, the land must be artificially watered, which is a much more laborious task than the cultivation. Four bullocks and three labourers are with difficulty able to water an acre in nine days; the average crop is reckoned 15 maunds per begah, (seven quarters per acre). Barley, peas, oil crops, and a yellow dye, are often mixed with the wheat. The average rent of wheat land is about one pound sterling per acre.

In this district the breed of sheep is small, even for India; and the fleece consists of a coarse, black hair, altogether unsuitable for cloth, but which answers very well for the manufacture of shepherds' rugs. The usual dress of the peasantry is merely a small piece of coarse cloth tied round the middle, one blanket, and a sort of turban made of a cotton clout; these three articles composing the sum total of their wardrobe. The internal commerce has progressively increased since the cession in 1801, and the culture of many articles, especially cotton, very greatly augmented, on account of the increased and increasing demand from Europe.

In every subdivision there is a small trade in cloths, grain, and other home productions. In the towns of Currah and Shahzadpoor a considerable quantity of cotton cloths and chintzes is manufactured for exportation; and in Futtehpoor and Allahabad, advances are made to a considerable amount for the species of cloths named baftaes and sullums. The transit commerce through the Allahabad district consists mostly of Sambher salt, cotton, unwrought iron and shawl goods; which, after supplying local consumption, are forwarded to the lower provinces. Prior to 1802, a considerable commerce was carried on at Phoolpoor in pergunnah Secundra, to the north of the Ganges. The commodities circulated were salt, cotton, iron, drugs of various kinds, copper, zinc, lead, broad cloth, and other articles from Bengal; but the traders were then so much oppressed by the Nabob of Oude's officers, that they retired with their capital to Mirzapoor, and other places of greater security. Shahzadpoor and Phoolpoor are still much resorted to by traders from the Nabob of Oude's reserved dominions; and until 1794, while the cloths manufactured in the lower parts of the Doab were much in demand for the European market, many mercantile houses were enabled to invest 15 or 20,000 rupees monthly, in the commodity of cloth alone. Since that time the cloths termed sullums, baftaes, the Shahzadpoor chintzes, and the red kurwa, have been most in demand, and considerable sums have been annually advanced in the country by the European merchants of Calcutta.

The revenue settlement originally formed here, in the fusly or financial year 1216, underwent two subsequent revisions.

In 1216 (1809-10) the terms were . . .	2,590,806 Rupees.
1217	2,667,614
1218	2,682,084
1219 provisionally and in perpetuity . . .	2,713,081

Although this settlement exhibits on the face of the account a progressive increase, it greatly falls short of the jumma, or assessment to the revenue, which the district was expected to yield on its first acquisition. This has been attributed to mistaken zeal on the first introduction of the British government, by immediately carrying the assessment to the highest point which the land was thought capable of sustaining. The fatal results of this inconsiderate arrangement, in the first instance, were, remissions and irrecoverable balances to a large amount, and a sudden fall of the revenue at the formation of the second settlement in 1213 (1806-7) fusly. Added to these evils were numerous transfers of estates by public and private sale, amounting in some pergunnahs to a total devolution of the principal and most valuable portion of the district, into the hands of the actual Tehsildars, or subordinate revenue officers. A great shock was in consequence sustained by the credit of government, from such persons having

been permitted to pervert their official influence, and the old proprietors did not disguise their hopes of recovering their estates by the termination and subversion of the British predominance.

On the formation of a subsequent settlement measures were taken by the commissioners, Sir Edward Colebrooke and Mr. Dean, for cancelling a great number of these illicit and fraudulent transfers, leaving the parties, should they consider themselves wronged by this proceeding, to establish their claims in a court of justice, but the relief thus afforded bore a small proportion to the extent of the grievance. In the Allahabad district, the russud, or progressively increasing assessment, originated probably in the efforts of the local revenue officers to carry the assessment to the highest practicable pitch, having in their view the perpetuity of the land-tax at the expiration of the lease. It would, however, have proved more conducive to the prosperity of the country, and ultimately to the improvement of the revenue, if the landholder had at the commencement enjoyed the full benefit of a moderate and equal assessment, under the temporary settlements.

In every district subordinate to the British authority throughout Hindostan, the state of its police is the most important feature of its history, and its jail the most imposing edifice. In the Allahabad jurisdiction 46 gang robberies were committed during the year 1811, but this offence does not generally prevail throughout the district, being of much more frequent occurrence in the police stations which are not situated within the Doab, but lie immediately on the borders of the Oude reserved territories, or adjacent to the then independent and turbulent state of Rewah. The two pergunnahs in which gang robberies are most frequent are, Secundra situated on the north side of the Ganges, near the Nabob of Oude's dominions; yet it was clearly ascertained that not one of the perpetrators lived in the Allahabad district, the atrocities having been perpetrated by a banditti residing within the Oude boundaries; the other pergunnah is Barah, situated south of the Ganges, and on the borders of the Rewah country, where the depredators found an asylum and depot for their booty. In some instances these crimes were committed by ousted zemindars, whose estates had been sold, and who were actuated by malice against the purchasers. Although many applications were made to the Raja of Rewah for the apprehension of the criminals, no step to effect that object was ever taken, or probably intended, by the Raja. The pasees, or village watchmen, had long been suspected of not performing the functions of their office, with either honesty or vigilance, and in 1812 were discovered to be the most numerous class of thieves in the district. In that year an affray of considerable magnitude took place respecting disputed boundaries, in which although the land in dispute amounted to only four begahs,

(only one acre and a third,) 900 men of different villages were engaged. On this occasion 130 persons were seized and sent to the magistrate for examination; but it may very much be doubted whether the seizure of so many persons is likely to restore good order, or whether so satisfactory a result can be expected, as shall compensate for the time the magistrate must devote to it, to the serious prejudice of his other duties. In 1815, the inhabitants generally evinced great hostility to the introduction of the Chokeydarry system, (an improved establishment of watchmen,) and no respectable inhabitants came forward to receive sunnuds. The class denominated Pragwals, who perform the religious ceremonies at the junction of the great rivers, to the number of 4 or 5,000, shewed a determination to resist, threatened to cease to officiate, and withdraw altogether, which would have caused a loss to government of the pilgrim revenue. Many other conspiracies to arrest the progress of the arrangements took place, but by patience and firmness were ultimately dissipated or suppressed.—*(Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Tennant, Guthrie, Fortescue, Lowther, &c.)*

ALLAHABAD.—A town in the province of Allahabad, of which it is the capital, situated at the confluence of the Ganges and Jumna. Lat. 25° 27′ N. long. 81° 50′ E. The fort is placed at the distance of a quarter of a mile on a tongue of land, one side being washed by the Jumna, and the other nearly approaching the Ganges. It is lofty and extensive, and completely commands the navigation of the two rivers. There are probably few buildings of equal size in Europe. Next the two rivers it is defended by the old walls, with the addition of some cannon. The third side next the land is perfectly regular and very strong. It has three ravelins, two bastions, and a half bastion, and stands higher than any ground in front of it. The gateway is Grecian and elegant. The government house is spacious and cool, and has some large subterraneous rooms overhanging the river. In the same line, another building has been modernized and converted into barracks for the non-commissioned officers. In the angle is a square, where Shah Allum had his seraglio, while he resided here. Up to 1803, the sum expended on the fortifications amounted to 12 lacks of rupees, and they are now quite impregnable to the tactics of a native army. To an European army a regular siege would be necessary, it is consequently the grand military depot of the upper provinces.

The situation of Allahabad being alike adapted for the purposes of internal commerce and defence, must have early pointed it out as an eligible spot for the foundation of a city, and most probably it is the site of the ancient Palibothra. In modern times, from its geographical position, it appears well calculated to be the emporium of Oude, Bundelcund, and Bogalecund. It formerly ranked as a

considerable mart for the cotton of the Deccan, and of countries to the south of the Jumna, but owing to the extortions practised on the merchant by the native revenue officers of the Oude government, the trade gradually resorted to Mirzapoor, and abandoned this port, although so eligibly situated. Nine-tenths of the present native buildings are of mud, raised on the foundations of more substantial brick edifices, which have long fallen to decay. In 1803 the inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison, were estimated at 20,000. The soil in the vicinity consists of brick dust, mortar, and broken pottery. The Ganges here is about a mile broad, and does not appear to be much augmented by the tribute of so large a river as the Jumna, although the latter is 1,400 yards across.

Statement of the amount paid into the Allahabad treasury on account of duties received at the custom house:

In 1812-13	220,000 rupees
1813-14	227,000

By the Brahmins Allahabad is called Bhat Prayag, or by way of distinction, as it is the largest and most holy, is simply designated by the name of Prayaga. The other four Prayagas, or sacred confluences of rivers, are situated in the province of Serinagur, at the junction of the Alacananda with other streams, and are named Devaprayaga, Rudraprayaga, Carnaprayaga, and Nandaprayaga. This Prayaga owes its celebrity to the junction at this spot of the Ganges, Jumna, and Sereswati. There is no such river as the last now visible in the neighbourhood, but the Hindoos assert that it joins the other two under ground, and that consequently by bathing here, the same religious merit is acquired, as if the penitent had bathed in the whole three separately. When a pilgrim arrives here, he first sits down on the brink of the river, and has his head and body shaved so that each hair may fall into the water, the sacred writings promising him one million of years residence in heaven, for every hair thus deposited. After shaving he bathes, and the same day, or the next, performs the obsequies of his deceased ancestors. The tax accruing to government for permission to bathe is only three rupees for each person; but a much greater expense is incurred in charity and gifts to the Brahmins, who are seen sitting by the river side. Many persons renounce life at this holy confluence, by going in a boat, after the performance of certain solemnities, to the exact spot where the three rivers unite, where the devotee plunges into the stream, with three pots of water tied to his body. Occasionally also some lives are lost by the eagerness of the devotees to rush in and bathe at the most sanctified spot, at a precise period of the moon, when the expiation possesses the highest efficacy. The Bengalese usually perform the pilgrimages of Gaya, Benares, and Allahabad during one journey, and thereby acquire great merit in the estimation of their countrymen.

Abstract of receipts and disbursements for 1812-13, the number of pilgrims being 218,792.

	Rupees.
Amount of collections	223,563
Repaid to the aunt of Dowlet Row Sindia	175
	223,388
Fines levied from persons attempting to bathe without licenses	1,085
	224,473
Charges of establishment	3,407
Net receipts 1812-13	221,066

So great a congregation of people as met in 1812 at the melah, or fair, had not occurred for 28 years, on which account many precautions became necessary to preserve the lives of the pilgrims from the effects of their own inconsiderate ardour. This was done so successfully that not one instance of death happened by drowning, but the measures adopted on shore were not so effectual, as on the last day of the assemblage, when a great concourse of people were advancing towards the barrier, 13 fell among the multitude, and were trampled to death.

In 1815-16, the gross collections were	79,779 rupees
Charges and commission	6,726
Net collections	73,053

The great Emperor Acber was always partial to Allahabad, and was the founder of the modern city, intending it as a strong hold to overawe the surrounding countries, for which from local circumstances it was well adapted. In 1765, it was taken by the British army under Sir Robert Fletcher. Following the course of the river, Allahabad is 820 miles from the sea, but the travelling distance from Calcutta is only 550 miles; from Benares 53; from Lucknow 127; from Agra 296; and from Delhi 212 miles.—*(Lord Valentia, Public MS. Documents, Sir Henry Wellesley, Ward, Tennant, &c. &c.)*

ALUMCHUN.—A town in the Allahabad province, 22 miles N. W. from the fortress of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 34′ N. long. 81° 31′ E.

ECDALLAH.—A town in the Allahabad province, 59 miles W. by N. from the fortress of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 34′ N. long. 81° 1′ E.

ARAIL.—This town stands exactly opposite to the fortress of Allahabad across the Jumna. Lat. 25° 24′ N. 81° 50′ E.

JOOSY.—This town stands exactly opposite to the fortress of Allahabad, across the Ganges. Lat. 25° 25′ N. long. 81° 52′ E.

JELGUMAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 20 miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 10′ N. long. 81° 43′ E.

FUTTEHPOOR.—A large town in the province of Allahabad, 65 miles S. from Lucknow. Lat. 25° 56′ N. long. 80° 45′ E.

CURRAH *(Khdra)*.—This town is situated on the S. W. side of the Ganges, 45 miles N. W. from Allahabad. Lat. 25° 41′ N. long. 81° 16′ E. It extends a mile along the banks of the Ganges, on the summit of which there is an old fort in ruins. There is also here a new one with a stone gateway, but unfinished. There are many Hindoo temples, in the largest of which there is an image of Mahadeva, with a bull looking at him. In 1582, when Abul Fazel compiled his statistical description of Hindostan, a small district was attached to this town, which was described by him as follows "Circar Currah, containing 12 mahals, measurement 447,556 begahs; revenue 22,682,048 dams; seyurghal 1,498,862 dams. This circar furnishes 390 infantry; and 8,700 cavalry."

BELINDA.—A small town in the Allahabad province, 66 miles south from Lucknow. Lat. 25° 53′ N. long. 80° 49′ E.

HUSWAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 30 miles N. W. from Currah. Lat. 25° 53′ N. long. 80° 52′ E.

KORAH *(Cara)*.—A town in the province of Allahabad, to which a small district was formerly attached, situated in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna. Lat. 26° 6′ N. long. 80° 40′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Korah, containing nine mahals, measurement 341,170 begahs; revenue 17,397,567 dams; Seyurghal 469,350 dams. This circar furnishes 500 cavalry, 10 elephants, and 15,000 infantry."

BENDIKEE.—A small town in the Allahabad province, 15 miles S. E. from the town of Korah. Lat. 26° 2′ N. long. 80° 30′ E.

CUDJWA *(Catchwa)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 11 miles S. E. from Korah. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 80° 26′ E.

TARHAR.—A small subdivision of the Allahabad province, which during the reign of Aurungzebe was formed of portions of land dismembered from the adjoining districts. It is situated due south of the city of Allahabad on the opposite side of the river.

THE BENARES DISTRICT OR ZEMINDARY.

This large portion of the Allahabad province is situated principally between the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude. When ceded in 1775, by Asoph ud Dowlah, it was subdivided into 62 pergunnahs, containing 12,000 square miles, of which 10,000 are a rich cultivated flat on both sides of the Ganges. The chief modern subdivisions are, the city and district of Benares, and the

districts of Juanpoor and Mirzapoor. In the institutes of Acber, A. D. 1582, Abul Fazel describes the province as follows: "Circar Benares, containing eight mahals; measurement 136,663 begahs; revenue 8,169,318 dams. This circar furnishes 830 cavalry, and 8,400 infantry.

The climate of this province, which in winter is so severe as to render fires necessary, becomes so heated for three months after March, by the setting in of the hot winds, as to destroy all verdure, and would probably prove destructive to all European artificial grasses, were the cultivation introduced. Turnips, radishes, and a variety of greens and garden stuffs are raised by the natives; but mostly for the consumption of Europeans. There is not much land employed in the raising of rice, the chief articles of produce being barley, wheat, and several species of the pea. A small quantity of flax is raised on the skirts of almost every field for the sake of the oil; its use as an article of clothing not being here understood. Every field of barley contains a mixture of grain or pease; and at the distance of six or ten feet, a beautiful yellow flowering shrub, used in dyeing, is planted. A considerable quantity of sugar is produced in this territory, and manufactured by a very simple process. A stone mortar and wooden piston turned by two bullocks, the whole not worth twelve rupees, constitute the most expensive part of the machinery, and the boiling pots are of the most common earthenware. Here, as in the West Indies, the sugar harvest is the joyous and busy season. The jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, in 1813 was 4,079,124 rupees, and the gross receipts of the Benares province 4,562,707 rupees.

From Patna to Buxar, Ghazipoor, Benares, and Mirzapoor, much cultivation and a rich country are seen, while the numerous clumps of mango trees give the district the appearance of a forest, and afford an agreeable retreat to the cattle. Both sides of the river, a little above Mirzapoor, belong to the Nabob of Oude, and exhibit a marked contrast to the Benares districts, which probably in the scale of general prosperity are inferior to few in the British dominions, and are still gradually improving in population, cultivation, commerce, and buildings, both religious and domestic. The stone quarries at Chunar, Ghazipoor, and Mirzapoor, were formerly reserved for the exclusive use of the government, and were either let in farm, or managed by an agent who disposed of the stones at stated prices, chiefly in the city of Benares; but in 1799, with the view of encouraging the excavation of the quarries, government determined to lay the whole open to the public, subject to a moderate duty. In 1815-16, the net collections on this account amounted to 37,086 rupees.

Plain and flowered muslins, adapted to common uses, are manufactured in the northern, baftaes in the western, and sanaes in the eastern part of the province.

Tissues, brocades, and ornamented gauzes, are the general manufacture. A species of salt is manufactured within the province, but much the greater proportion is imported from Bengal and Sambher in Ajmeer, and other places. A great quantity of excellent indigo is annually raised and exported from the Benares territories, which also furnish a proportion of the Company's opium. The principal rivers are the Ganges, the Goomty, the Caramanassa and the Sone, the two last being boundary rivers; and on the whole the country is tolerably well supplied with water. The principal towns are Benares, Mirzapoor, Juanpoor, Chunar, and Ghazipoor. In 1801, by the directions of Marquess Wellesley, then Governor-General, the board of revenue circulated various questions to the collectors of the different districts on statistical subjects. The result of their replies tended to prove, that the Benares province contained 3,000,000 (a number probably greatly within the mark) of inhabitants, and that the population of the towns was generally in proportion of ten Hindoos to one Mahommedan, while that of the country was 20 of the former to one of the latter.

The code of regulations for Bengal has, with very little alteration, been extended to Benares; but in consideration of the high respect paid by the Hindoos to the character of their Brahmins, they have received some special indulgencies in the mode of proceeding against them on criminal charges; and it has been further provided in their favour, that in all cases, where by law a Brahmin would be adjudged to suffer death, the sentence shall be changed to transportation, or mitigated at the discretion of government. At the same time some evil practices of the Brahmins were abolished; one of which was, the holding out the threat of obtaining spiritual vengeance on their adversaries by suicide, or by the exposure of the life, or actual sacrifice, of one of their own children, or near relations. It was then ordered that occurences of this nature should not be exempted from the cognizance of the magistrate, and the usual course of the criminal law. The consequence was, that the frequency of the crime so gradually diminished, that in 1801 only one instance had occurred in the populous district of Juanpoor within six months. On this occasion a Brahmin destroyed himself, and his body was buried by a relation at the door of the zemindar of his village. The dispute originated respecting the proportion of Brahminy fees, to which his branch of the family deemed themselves entitled; and the body was buried at the zemindar's door because the latter had paid a marriage fee to the other party. Voluntary suicide, however, continued frequent, and the same magistrate reckoned that in the Juanpoor district alone four or five persons destroyed themselves each solar month. Another tribe of Hindoos residing in the province, named Rajcoomars, were accustomed to destroy their female infants, in consequence

of the difficulty experienced in procuring suitable matches. From this practice they were prevailed on to desist by the resident, Mr. Duncan, and the observance of it now subjects the offender to the ordinary punishment of murder. The usual proportion of deaths among the prisoners in the jails of the Benares division is about 5 in the 100 persons annually. The most prevalent diseases are dysentery and rheumatism, and the unhealthy periods are the months of September and October.

Munsuram, the father of Cheit Singh, possessed originally but half the village of Gungapoor, by additions to which, in the usual modes of Hindostan, he laid the foundation of the great zemindary of Benares. He died in 1740, and was succeeded by his son Bulwunt Singh, who in 30 years of his own management, increased his acquisitions to the present size of the province. Cheit Singh received the zemindary in 1770, was expelled during the government of Mr. Hastings in 1781, and died at Gualior on the 29th of March, 1810. The lands were transferred to a collateral branch of the family, the present representative of which is named Raja Oodit Narrain.—*(Tennant, J. Grant, Welland, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE CITY OF BENARES.

The Sanscrit name of this ancient city is Varanaschi, from Vara and Nashi, two rivers, and its geographical position is in lat. 25° 30′ N. long. 83° 1′ E. The Ganges here forms a fine sweep of about four miles in length, and on the external side of the curve, which is the most elevated, stands the holy city of Benares. The margin is covered with houses to the water's edge, and the opposite shore being level, the whole may be viewed at once. Ghauts, or landing places, built of large stones, are very frequent, and are 30 feet high before they reach to the streets; the erection of them is frequent by Hindoos as acts of piety.

The streets are so extremely narrow, that it is difficult to penetrate them, even on horseback. The houses are built of stone, some six stories high, close to each other, with terraces on the summit, and very small windows, to prevent glare and inspection from without. The opposite side of the streets in some places approach so near to each other as to be united by galleries. The number of stone and brick houses, from one to six stories high, is upwards of 12,000; the mud houses above 16,000; and, in 1803, the permanent inhabitants by enumeration exceeded 582,000. This was exclusive of the attendants on three Mogul princes, and several other foreigners, who may amount to 3000; and during the festivals the concourse is beyond calculation. The Mahommedans are not supposed to be more than one in ten. In this city there are said to be 8000

houses occupied by Brahmins, who receive charitable contributions, although each has a property of his own.

The mosque with its minars was built by Aurengzebe to mortify the Hindoos. Not only is it placed on the highest point of land, and most conspicuous from being close to the river; but the foundations are laid on a sacred spot, where before stood a Hindoo temple, which was destroyed to make room for the Mussulmaun edifice. From the top of the minars there is an extensive view of the town and adjacent country, and of the numerous Hindoo temples scattered over the city, and the surrounding country. The houses of the English at Serole are handsome, although they look naked for want of trees; but this is indispensable in India, on account of the multitudes of musquetoes their foliage harbours. The Raja of Benares resides at Ramnagur, on the opposite side of the river, about five miles from Benares. There are but few Europeans here: a judge, collector, and register, the members of the court of circuit, with a few other civil and medical servants, constitute the whole of the government establishment; to which may be added a few private merchants and planters. Amidst such a crowd of natives, and in so sacred a town, it may be supposed that mendicants are very numerous; many of the natives, however, possess large fortunes, and are actively engaged in trade as merchants or bankers. Benares has long been the great mart for diamonds, and other gems, brought principally from the Bundelcund country. The land in and about Benares being high priced and much sought after, law suits respecting it are unceasing.

Benares, or Casi, is held by the Hindoos to be sacred for ten miles around, and the famous lingam it contains, is said to be a petrifaction of Siva himself. The principal demigods have also set up images of the lingam, so that within the city there are not less than one million of images of the lingam. Another legend of equal authenticity is, that Benares was originally built of gold, but in consequence of the sins of the people became stone, and latterly, owing to the increasing wickedness, has degenerated into thatch and clay. The Brahmins assert that Benares is no part of the terrestrial globe, for that rests on the thousand headed serpent Ananta (eternity); whereas Benares is fixed on the point of Siva's trident, as a proof of which they allege that no earthquake is ever felt within its holy limits, and that in consequence of its peculiar position it escaped destruction during a partial overwhelming of the world. Most persons stay but a short time at Benares, and then return to their families, yet even so transient a visit secures the pilgrim entrance into the heaven of Siva. Some visit the sacred place repeatedly, and one devotee is mentioned, who had been sixteen times from Benares to Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon. There are regular guides, or Cicerones, who met pilgrims in the different villages through which they have to pass,

and conduct them collectively to Benares. A great many persons also resort hither from all parts of Hindostan, in order to finish their days in so holy a sanctuary; and the Hindoos admit that even the beef eating English who die at Benares may obtain absorption into Brihm. Some learned Hindoos relax so far as to admit the possible salvation of Englishmen in two other cases; viz. if they become firm believers in Gunga (the Ganges), or die at Juggernauth; and they even name a European who went straight to heaven from Benares, but it appeared that he had left money for the construction of a temple after his death.

The country opposite to Benares is called Vyasa Casi, from the following legend. At a certain time the great saint Vyasa, the compiler of the Vedas, being angry with Siva, began to found a city which should eclipse Benares. The destroyer (Siva) being alarmed, sent his son Ganesa, the god of wisdom, to thwart by artifice this intention, and he in prosecution of the design became the saint's disciple, and daily asked him what would be the fruit of living and dying in the new city. This query was repeated so often that at last the holy man lost his temper, and in a fit of rage exclaimed, that in the succeeding transmigration they would be born asses, and in consequence abandoned his design. At present some ruins of temples are to be seen, but on account of the above anathema and over caution, few persons chuse to reside on a spot so circumstanced.

This city has long been celebrated as the revered seat of Brahminical learning, and it is still reckoned so holy, that several foreign Hindoo Rajas keep vakeels, or delegates, residing here, who perform for their benefit the requisite sacrifices and oblations. In 1801, besides the public college for Hindoo literature, instituted during the residency of Jonathan Duncan, Esq. there were in the city private teachers of the Hindoo and Mahommedan law; and of the first, 300 were stated to be eminent, the aggregate number of their pupils 5000. From a prevailing idea, that were they to receive any remuneration directly from their pupils, the religious merit of teaching the Vedas would be lost, they would accept of nothing from their scholars, trusting to donations from pilgrims of rank, and to regular salaries allowed them by different Hindoo princes, such as the Raja of Jeypoor and some Maharatta chiefs.

In 1811 it was found necessary to revise and new model the regulations of the Hindoo college, to adapt them to the prevailing habits and opinions of the natives, and to correct the abuses, of which the following were the most remarkable. The same prejudice continued to exist against the function of professor, considered as an office, or even as a service, and the most learned pundits had invariably refused the employment, although the salary was liberal. That part of the then existing

plan, which supposes the attendance of teachers and pupils in a public hall, was found altogether inconsistent with the tenets of the Hindoos, and in fact not only never took place, but tended to prevent the professors from giving instructions at their own houses. And lastly, feuds had arisen and embezzlements taken place among the native members of the college. Various measures were then adopted by the Bengal government with the view of remedying these defects, and renovating the taste for Hindoo literature; but under existing circumstances this appears to be a hopeless task, and a misdirection of the studies of the natives, which might be much more profitably applied to the English language and European literature and science. In 1801 there were 30 persons eminent as instructors in the Mahommedan law; but they were mostly persons of independent property, or who held public employments and gave instruction gratis.

Reading and writing are taught here at the same time: the boys are collected on a smooth flat of sand, and, with the finger or a small reed, form the letters in the sand, which they learn to pronounce at the same time. When the space before each scholar is filled up with writing, it is effaced and prepared for a new lesson.

A considerable tract of country adjacent to Benares is subordinate to the jurisdiction of its magistrate, and in a progressive state of improvement. The cultivation has everywhere greatly extended, an observation which may be applied to the province generally, as, except in pergunnah Chownsah, and in the hills to the south-east of Chunar, there is hardly a sufficient quantity of uncultivated land for the grazing of cattle. The most valuable articles of produce are sugar cane, opium, tobacco, betel leaf, and indigo. The zemindars' clear profit on their lands in 1801 was reckoned very unequal; some estates yielding under 10 per cent. while others realized above thirty. At that period the rent-free lands throughout the Benares territories were estimated to bear the proportion of 1 to 7 of those assessed for revenue, there was no perceptible difference in the standard of their cultivation. The amount paid into the Benares treasury on account of duties collected at the custom house was, in 1813-14, sicca rupees 191,306.

The ancient name of Benares was Casi, the splendid, which it still retains; but there are not any notices concerning it in the works of the ancient geographers, although they specify Mathura (Methora) and Clisobara, which lay near the Jumna. It is probable that at the period of the Mahommedan invasion it was subject to the Hindoo empire of Kanoje. In A. D. 1017, Sultan Mahmood, of Ghizni, took Benares and the town of Cassum, or Casuma, now Patna, and went as far as the country of Ouganam, or Unja, to the west of the Cossimbazar river. The next year he overrun these countries again, and penetrated as far as

Kisraji, or Cach'cha Raja, or Cooch Bahar. From that date, the Hindoos in this part of India remained for a long time unmolested by the Mahommedans, as it does not appear they made any permanent conquests in this territory before the end of the 12th century, or about 1190, after which event it followed the fortunes of the Patan and Mogul dynasties, until with the rest of the district it devolved to the British in 1775. On the 14th of January, 1799, Mr. Cherry, the resident, and three other English gentlemen, were treacherously murdered by Vizier Ali, the deposed Nabob of Oude, and spurious son of the late Asoph ud Dowlah. Mr. Davis, the judge of the city, defended himself and family with a short spear, at the top of a narrow winding staircase, on the flat roof of the house, until assistance arrived.

This celebrated city has enjoyed the most undisturbed tranquillity ever since it came under the immediate government of the British nation in 1781, and has continued annually to increase in size, the buildings having expanded to the neighbouring villages, and to accumulate so immense a population that it probably is at present the most populous city of Hindostan, its real number of inhabitants certainly exceeding 600,000. The latter are in general better informed than the majority of the people of Hindostan, and are fully sensible of the contrast between the British dominions, and the native powers, with respect to security of person and property, and the tale of every pilgrim and traveller that arrives, assists to refresh their memories. In 1815, considering the extent and great population of the city of Benares, the security afforded by the police was unequalled in any part of the Company's dominions. The Benares division of the court of circuit comprehends the following districts; viz. 1, Mirzapoor; 2, Allahabad; 3, Bundelcund; 4, Juanpoor; 5. Gorucpoor; 6. the city of Benares.

The travelling distance from Benares to Calcutta is 460 miles, by Moorshedabad 565; from Allahabad 83; Buxar 70; Bareily 345; Calpee 239; and Kanoje 259 miles.—*(Ward, Lord Valentia, Tennant, Lord Minto, Routledge, &c. &c. &c.)*

GHAZIPOOR.—A town and district in the province of Allahabad, zemindary of Benares, situated about the 26th degree of north latitude. On the north this district is bounded by the Goggrah; on the south by the Ganges; on the east it has the Goggrah, and on the west Juanpoor. It has long been celebrated for the excellence of its rose-water, and being also remarkably well supplied with natural moisture, may be noted as one of the most fertile subdivisions of India. In 1582, it is described by Abul Fazel, as follows: "Circar Gazypoor, containing 19 mahals, measurement 2,880,770 begahs, revenue 13,431,300 dams,

seyurghal 131,825 dams. This Circar furnishes 310 cavalry, and 16,650 infantry."

The territory attached to the town of Ghazipoor, formerly composed a separate jurisdiction, but subsequent to the introduction of the Bengal code into the Benares province, the judicial establishment at Ghazipoor was withdrawn, and the country divided between the courts of Juanpoor, Mirzapoor, and the city of Benares. The chief towns are Ghazipoor, Azimpoor, and Dooryghaut. The town of Ghazipoor stands on the north side of the Ganges, about 41 miles N. E. from Benares. Lat. 25° 35′ N. long. 83° 33′ E. The town is large and populous, and within the superintendance of the police station there are no less than 300 villages. In 1813-14, the amount paid into the Benares treasury on account of customs collected here was 140,988 rupees. At one end of the town is a palace (which belonged to the late Saadet Ali, the Nabob of Oude) overhanging the Ganges, which is here wide and the current slow, and there are also cantonments for three regiments of cavalry. The inhabitants of this town and vicinity have been noted from time immemorial for their turbulent and refractory spirit, and have always required the strong hand of power to retain them in any degree of subordination to the laws.—*(Public MS. Documents, Locke, &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF MIRZAPOOR.

This district forms one of the judicial subdivisions of the Benares province; but the limits of the magisterial authority have never been accurately defined, nor has it any separate collector, the revenue being paid into the Benares treasury. In 1801, Mirzapoor was described by the then judge as possessing a flourishing commerce, and being generally in a progressive state of improvement. Besides what proceeded from natural causes, the country then received an annual access of population, by emigration from the contiguous territories subject to petty native chiefs, which were always agitated by internal feuds and dissensions. The total number of inhabitants at that date was estimated at 900,000 souls in the country, in the proportion of one Mahommedan to 20 Hindoos; in the towns of 1 to 10. The chief town is Mirzapoor; but the district contains many smaller of from 5 to 10,000 inhabitants. In 1801, there still existed many forts built of masonry, and also the remains of many mud forts. Bijeeghur was then in tolerable condition, Agowin in a state of decay, and Chittoghur, Bejeypoor, and Seromjah in ruins. There were no schools or seminaries for instruction in the Hindoo or Mahommedan law, no bridges of any note, nor any public edifice of magnitude.

Subsequent to the conclusion of certain arrangements made with the native chiefs, until the commencement of 1815, the tranquillity of the frontier villages of the Mirzapoor district remained undisturbed by predatory incursions from the Burdee country, which had at former periods been of such frequent occurrence. The renewal of these outrages, the repairing of the fortifications of Bhoparee, and the course of conduct pursued by Surnam Singh, and the Burdee Raja, rendered it necessary to adopt prompt and effectual measures, for compelling the latter to act in conformity with the obligations of his engagement, by not only desisting from the completion of the fortifications, but by demolishing the works already erected, and withdrawing his protection from Surnam Singh and his adherents. Measures were accordingly adopted for the attainment of these objects, without which the tranquillity of the district could not be established on a permanent basis, and the Raja being fully sensible of the hopelessness of resistance, they were accomplished without any serious difficulty. In 1815, offences were extremely prevalent in the pergunnah of Bhuddaee containing 803 villages, which was ascribed by the magistrate to the local and legal peculiarities of that tract, it being entirely under the controul of the Raja of Benares. —*(Public MS. Documents, R. Ahmuty, &c. &c.)*

MIRZAPOOR.—This large and flourishing town stands on the south side of the Ganges, about 30 miles travelling distance W. S. W. from Benares. Lat. 25° 10′ N. long. 83° 35′ E. It is at present one of the greatest inland trading towns, has long been, and still continues, the mart for all the cotton of Agra and the Maharatta countries. The inhabitants are more remarkable for their active industry, than in any part of the Company's dominions out of the three capitals, to which they have been greatly stimulated by the energy and enterprize of the British indigo planters and merchants settled among them. A considerable quantity of filature silk is imported to Mirzapoor from Bengal, and passes hence to the Maharatta dominions and central parts of Hindostan. In the vicinity a very durable carpetting, and various fabrics of cotton, are manufactured. In 1813-14, the amount paid into the Mirzapoor treasury on account of customs collected was 305,073 rupees.

In 1801, the bankers and merchants of Mirzapoor having represented to the magistrate of the district, that they experienced much inconvenience from the scarcity of land for the erection of new buildings, the population having increased beyond the space allotted for their accommodation; sixty begahs (20 acres) of land, situated between the Duncangunge gate and the river Ganges, were in consequence allotted by government to furnish space for such persons as were desirous of settling in that quarter. As applications however were received for 1,200 houses, and the above extent could only contain 600,

the preference was given to persons who undertook to construct houses of masonry, shops, warehouses, and good dwelling-houses, and for the accommodation of the less opulent class 40 additional begahs were appropriated. The modern town consists of handsome European houses, native habitations, and clusters of Hindoo temples, crowding the banks of the Ganges, and, seen from the river, the whole makes a very lively and animated appearance. The soil of this town and the adjacent lands is so strongly impregnated with saline particles, as materially to injure buildings composed of brick and mortar. In 1801, Mirzapoor, by the result of a calculation made from the number of houses, was found to contain 50,000 inhabitants; at present the total population probably considerably exceeds 60,000, the town having since not only enjoyed a state of uninterrupted prosperity, but received a vast accession of trade by the opening of the commerce with Europe, and the increased demand for cotton. Although so remote from the sea, bales of this useful and valuable commodity are sent direct to Europe, being merely transhipped at Diamond harbour from the boat on which they are embarked at Mirzapoor, without being landed in transitu at Calcutta. In 1817, 30,000 maunds of cotton, and a great part of the town of Mirzapoor, were destroyed by an accidental conflagration. Travelling distance from Calcutta, by Moorshedabad, 754; by Birboom, 649 miles.—*(Colebrooke, Tennant, Lord Valentia, &c. &c.)*

CHUNAR *(or Chandalghur)*.—The town of Chunar is situated on the south side of the Ganges, about 17 miles in a straight direction S. W. from Benares. Lat. 25° 9′ N. long. 82° 54′ E. In ancient times it was a place of importance, and had a large district attached to it, which in 1582 was described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Circar Chunar, containing 18 mahals; measurement 106,270 begahs; revenue 5,810,654 dams, seyurghal 109,065 dams. This circar furnishes 500 cavalry, and 18,000 infantry." In modern times Chunar has lost both its consequence and territory, the fortifications having been allowed to go to decay, and the lands attached to the adjacent jurisdictions of Mirzapoor and Benares.

The fortress of Chunar is, or rather was, situated on a free-stone rock, several hundred feet high, which rises abruptly from the plain, and advances some distance into the river. It was fortified in the Hindostany fashion with walls and towers, one behind the other, and was formerly a place of considerable strength. The prospect from its summit is one of the finest imaginable. The approach to the town from the north is marked by a chain of low hills, running parallel to the river on its right bank, which is covered with plantations and bungalows. The modern town is a straggling collection of native huts and European bungalows. The batteries completely command the navigation of

the river, and allow no boat to go up or down without examination. At certain seasons of the year Chunar is excessively hot and very unhealthy.

In 1530, Chunar was the residence of Shere Khan, the Afghan, who expelled the Emperor Humayoon from Hindostan. In 1575, it was taken by the Moguls after a siege of six months. In 1563, this fortress, after repulsing a night attack of the British troops, was, some time afterwards, delivered up without a siege, and has ever since remained in the Company's possession; but since the British frontier has been carried so much further to the north and west, it has been superseded as a military depot by Allahabad. Travelling distance from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 574 miles; by Birboom 469 miles.—*(Lord Valentia, Tennant, Gholaum Hossein, Ferishta, &c.)*

BIDJEEGHAR *(Vijayaghar)*.—A fortress in the district of Mirzapoor. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 83° 10′ E. about 50 miles south from Benares. The fort is a circumvallation of a hill, measuring obliquely from the immediate base to the summit about two miles. Its strength consists in the height and steepness of the hill, and the unhealthy nature of the surrounding country. In former times three deep reservoirs, excavated on the top of the hill, supplied the garrison with water. It was taken by the British forces in 1781, during the revolt of Cheit Singh, and has ever since been neglected, and left to go to ruin. Travelling distance from Benares 56 miles.—*(Forster, Rennell, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF JUANPOOR.

This district is principally situated between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Goggra and the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories; on the south by the Ganges; to the east it has the Goggra; and the Oude dominions on the west. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Juanpoor, containing 41 mahals; measurement 870,265 begahs; revenue 56,394,127 dams; seyurghal 4,717,654 dams. This circar furnishes 915 cavalry, and 36,000 infantry."

The land in Juanpoor is at present under good cultivation, and very productive, notwithstanding the predominance of a sandy soil, and the intensity of the heat during the summer season. Very little, however, is allowed to remain waste, and water is always to be procured from underground by human labour, at all seasons of the year. In the neighbouring pergunnahs belonging to Oude, a striking contrast is exhibited. The quantity of land under tillage visibly diminished by the oppression of the government, while the mangoe clumps which require little care are increased in number, and rank jungle more general. There are no fences throughout this district, except occasionally where a row of Indian figs is planted along the sides of the road. The surface is slightly undu-

lated, and the view is interrupted by frequent clumps of mangoe trees, but there are no elevations amounting to hills or mountains. The district has certainly experienced a progressive improvement since its acquisition by the British government, but the buildings and villages remain as formerly, without convenience, neatness, or cleanliness, it being in most cases difficult to distinguish the house of the zemindar from that of the most obscure peasant. This circumstance is partly to be attributed to the natural indolence and indifference of the occupiers; but more to the Hindoo rule of inheritance, which enjoins an equal division of property, until the estate is subdivided down to the most minute fractions. Most commonly the income of a landholder here seldom exceeds 500 rupees per annum, and they have long been noted as a peculiarly turbulent and refractory race of people.

In 1801, the population was found to be increasing, although individuals then emigrated annually to procure service with the neighbouring independent native princes and zemindars, who always employ more servants in the execution of their business, than are required under the British jurisdiction. In that year the magistrate reported the number of inhabitants to be 3,071,000, in the proportion of eight Hindoos to one Mahommedan; but the sum total appears so enormous that it probably referred to the population of the Benares territory generally. There were then no private schools or seminaries for teaching the Hindoo or Mahommedan law; such had existed, but the lands and funds destined for their maintenance had long been sequestered. There are still to be seen the remains of many mud forts, but none of masonry, with the exception of that of Juanpoor, which is constructed of stone. The principal towns are Juanpoor, Azimghur, and Mow.

From the extensive frontier which this district exposes towards the reserved territories of the Nabob of Oude, affording an easy escape to criminals, as well as from the habitual turbulence of the zemindars, who are mostly Rajpoots, speedy justice is particularly requisite to prevent the incessant broils and quarrels, to which this class have naturally so strong a propensity. Indeed, in 1813, such was the state of Juanpoor, that it required the immediate interposition of government to give efficiency to the police system, accidental and premeditated affrays having been remarkably frequent and sanguinary, and instances having occurred where the police officers had been obliged to return to their stations in consequence of meeting with a resistance they could not overcome. It has been surmised, and probably with truth, that the dilatory process of the law courts is one cause to which the frequent occurrence of these vindictive conflicts is to be ascribed; regular application to the magistrate having been considered almost nugatory, or at all events as only presenting so distant a prospective of any

decision, that they prefer having recourse to the more speedy arbitration of the sword.—*(Lord Valentia, Welland, Locke, &c. &c.)*

JUANPOOR.—This town is situated on the banks of the river Goomty, so named from its meandering course, about 40 miles N. W. from Benares. Lat. 25° 45′ N. long. 82° 39′ E. The fort is built of solid stone work, and rises considerably above the level of the country, in which on all sides are seen monuments and mosques in ruins. A suburb of clay-built huts leads to a large serai, formed of the same materials, through which there is a bridge of considerable extent divided into two parts, one of which consists of 10 arches, and is over the boundary of the river during the dry season. This bridge has stood 250 years, having been erected by Monahur Khan, the governor, during the reign of Acber, and still remains a monument of his magnificence, and of the superior skill of the architect. In the year 1773, a brigade of British troops under Sir Robert Barker, on their way from Oude, having embarked on the river Goomty at Sultanpoor in the height of the rainy season, sailed over this bridge, which was then submerged, yet it suffered no damage from the violence of the current. No native in modern times is capable of either planning or executing such a piece of architecture.

Juanpoor is said to have been founded by Sultan Feroze of Delhi, who named it after his cousin Faker ud Deen Jowna, and was for some time the seat of an independent empire. In the beginning of the 15th century Khaja Jehan, vizier to Sultan Mahommed Shah of Delhi, during the minority of the latter's son, assumed the title of Sultan Shirki, or king of the east, and taking possession of Bahar fixed his residence at this place. This dynasty became extinct about 1492, before which period it had been conquered by Sultan Beloli Lodi. It was finally acquired by the Mogul emperors during the reign of Acber, since which period it has experienced a gradual decline. The majority of the inhabitants are Mahommedans; but in this place also reside the Hindoo caste of Rajcoomars, with whom the practice of female infanticide prevailed until it was abolished by the British government. Travelling distance from Benares 42 miles; from Lucknow 147 miles.—*(Lord Valentia, Hodges, Ferishta, Stewart, Rennell, &c.)*

ZAFFERABAD.—A populous town in the Allahabad province, four miles north from the city of Juanpoor, estimated to contain 20,000 inhabitants.

MAHOWL.—A town in the Allahabad province, 42 miles north from Juanpoor. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 83° 38′ E.

AZIMGHUR.—This town is situated about 37 miles N. E. from Juanpoor. Lat. 24° 6′ N. long. 83° 10′ E. A considerable quantity of cotton cloths are manufactured in this town and the adjacent country, and formerly also a quantity of opium; but this interfering with the Company's monopoly of that

drug, its production was prohibited.—Azimghur was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in 1801.

Dooryghaut *(Durighat)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 37 miles S. by E. from Goracpoor. Lat. 26° 16′ N. long. 83° 32′ E.

Mow.—This town was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in 1801, and was then a town of considerable commerce. It stands on the west side of the Loorjew river, 53 miles N. E. from Benares. Lat. 25° 57′ N. long. 83° 37′ E.

REWAH.

This town and district composed a fourth part of the ancient circar of Callinjer, and with Sohagepoor was dismembered from Bhatta by Aurengzebe, and nominally annexed to Allahabad; but it does not appear according to the European sense of the phrase, that this space was ever effectually brought under subjection to the Mogul government, although tribute was occasionally exacted. The town of Rewah stands on the banks of the Bichanuddy river, which runs under the fort, in lat. 24° 34′ N. long. 81° 19′ E. 69 miles S. by W. from the city of Allahabad. The Raja's house is in the fort, which is of stone and very large; the suburbs are extensive, and the country contains several other walled towns, such as Mow, Raypoor, Muckondabad, and Douree. The chief rivers are the Tonsa, the Goggra, and the Buheer, and within this tract are found several cataracts, such as those of the Tonsa and Baheer rivers, and another near to Keuta, about 20 miles from Lowr, at the confluence of the Mohanna stream with a small rivulet, the perpendicular height of which is said to be 300 feet.

The Rewah and Singhranah districts are situated between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude, and present a waving surface, diversified with groves, tanks, and numerous rivulets. The soil is good, and water everywhere found a few feet under ground, irrigation is consequently much practised, nor is there so much jungle as might have been expected in a region so long subject to the misgovernment of petty native chiefs. The villages and habitations appear neat and cleanly, and the state of agriculture creditable to the cultivators; but wheeled carriages are rare. There are at present no temples of note within the district, but the ruins of several are still extant, and several immense tanks are to be seen. Near Raypoor are the ruins of some ancient temples which appear to have been stately fabrics.

The modern dominions of the Rewah Raja border for a considerable distance on the south eastern frontier of the most eastern portion of Bundelcund, and join to that part of the Allahabad district situated to the right of the Jumna. In 1810, these territories were an asylum to all malcontents and criminals both

from the British ceded districts, and from those belonging to the Nabob of Oude. The Singhranah district was then controuled by five native chiefs, whose possessions, comprehending from 80 to 100 villages each, were subdivided into several zemindaries; but the Mow Raja was the most powerful, and the hereditary chief of the Singhranies. From all these, however, the Raja of Rewah, when sufficiently powerful, was accustomed to levy tribute. In 1813, the Rewah territory had become a complete scene of anarchy and robbery, the raja being unable to repress the depredations of his feudatories, who treacherously hung upon the rear of the British forces marching through their country; and on one occasion cut off and destroyed a small escort. A detachment was in consequence sent to root out this banditti, which commenced by storming the mud fort of Entourree, and putting the garrison to the sword. Surnaid Singh, the leader of the den of thieves, finding he could not escape, strewed a quantity of gunpowder on a cloth, in which he rolled himself, and having set it on fire, thus terminated his existence. After this event, the detachment proceeded to execute the remainder of the plan of the campaign, and many other petty forts of the same description were levelled with the ground, to the great joy of the peaceably disposed inhabitants. The annual rent of the tract permanently annexed to the British territories in 1813, was 40,000 rupees, without including Choorhat or Raypoor. —*(J. Grant, Public Printed Documents, Richardson, &c. &c.)*

Douree.—A town in the Allahabad province, 42 miles S. S. E. from Jhansi. Lat. 24° 52′ N. long. 81° 41′ E.

Coorhut *(or Choorhut)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 30 miles E.S.E. from Rewah. Lat. 24° 29′ N. long. 81° 47′ E. It is governed by a chief named the Row of Choorhut.

Mow.—This town is situated about 76 miles S. W. from Benares, and is the seat of the chief of the Singhranee tribe. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 81° 56′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF BUNDELCUND *(Bandelkhand)*.

This large division of the Allahabad province is situated principally between the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and is formed of the whole circar mentioned by Abul Fazel under the name of Ahmedabad Gohrah, with three-fourths of that of Callinjer, stretching north to the southern bank of the Jumna, over an extent of 11,000 square miles. The country is high and mountainous, and but imperfectly cultivated. The summits of the hills, although mostly rocky, are covered with small coppice wood, there being few timber trees of a large size. About Adjyghur, the whole of the ghauts, and almost every hill in this part of Bundelcund, is a table land, and the country one of the strongest in the world, every hill being a natural fortress from its great height and steep-

ness. The face of the country presents detached patches of jungle; the soil is in many places, but not generally, rich, and produces a number of teak trees, which appear to be of a bastard kind, being very stunted in their growth. Even in 1814, the population of the district was scanty, and the villages were generally situated at a great distance from each other. The Bundelcund dialect is spoken in the district, in a territory lying due west of Allahabad, and along the banks of the Jumna from Mow to Calpee. It is a derivative from the Sanscrit, and meets the Malwa on the west, the Bruj on the north, and the Maharatta on the south. The specimen of the Lord's prayer, examined by the missionaries, was found to contain 25 words found also in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

This district is chiefly comprehended betweeen the Betwah and the Cane rivers, but has no river of much consequence flowing through it. The south western frontier towards Gundwana, begins a few miles south of the village of Dowra. Lat. 24° N. long. 80° 45′ E. The famous diamond mines of Pannah, which in the reign of Acber were valued at eight lacks of rupees, are within the boundaries of Bundelcund, but are not now so productive; the other principal towns are Banda (the head quarters and residence of the magistrate), Callinjer, Teary, Jyhtpoor, Chatterpoor, Jhansi, Dulteen, and Bejaour. Under the native chiefs who ruled during the last and preceding centuries, the government of the country was denominated the Hindupati of Bundelcund; the rajas being of the Bundela tribe of Rajpoots. The founder of this family was Raja Beer Singh, from whom the family of the Oorcha chief is descended. The greater part of his dominions was wrested from him by Raja Chuttersal, who was the last sole possessor of the Bundelcund province, then estimated to produce a land revenue of one crore (ten millions) of rupees annually. At that period its capital was Callinjer, but the residence of the raja was Pannah, situated above the ghauts, and celebrated for its diamond mines.

During the government of Raja Chuttersal, Bundelcund was invaded by Mahommed Khan Bungish, the Patan chief of Furruckabad, and the Peshwa Sewai Bajerow was invited from the Deccan to assist in repelling the invasion. When this was effected, the Raja adopted the Peshwa as his son, and divided his territory between his two sons, Hirdee Sah and Juggeth Sah, and the Peshwa, his son by adoption. The two portions assigned to Hirdee and Juggeth Sah, continued to be held by their numerous descendants, or by the nominal adherents and declining branches of that family, until a long series of domestic dissension and civil war in the Bundelcund province had prepared it for subjugation by a foreign power.

Madhajee Sindia, during his last and successful attempt in 1786, on the expiring Delhi sovereignty, was accompanied by a strong detachment of Deccanny

troops, under the command of Ali Bahauder, an illegitimate grandson of the first Peshwa, Bajerow, by a Mahommedan woman. The Peshwa's object in marching this body of troops, was to obtain possession of the northern districts of the Doab, of the Ganges, and Jumna, to be governed by Ali Bahauder as his representative. In the army of Madhajee Sindia was also the late Raja Himmut Bahauder, a powerful commander of a large body of horse, and of a numerous party of Gosains or Nangas, a peculiar class of armed beggars and religious devotees, and of whom Raja Himmut was not only the military leader, but also the spiritual guide. This chief, falling under the suspicion of Sindia, took refuge under the Zureen Putka, or principal banner of the Maharatta empire, which had been entrusted by the Peshwa on this expedition to Ali Bahauder, and is always guarded by a select body of troops. In consequence of this measure a breach ensued between Sindia and Ali Bahauder, whose views on the Doab were wholly frustrated; Sindia determining to establish his own independent authority in that country.

Ali Bahauder, thus disappointed of aggrandizement in Upper Hindostan, prepared to return to Poona, but destitute of funds for the support of his army; when in this distress, Raja Himmut Bahauder suggested to him the entire conquest of Bundelcund, of which country he was a native; and an agreement was concluded between them, by the conditions of which a large portion of the province was, when conquered, to be consigned to the independent management of Raja Himmut Bahauder, and the revenue appropriated to the support of the troops which he engaged to maintain in the service of Ali Bahauder. The distracted and turbulent state of the province was such, that an invitation was soon received from one of the contending parties, and the invasion undertaken, A. D. 1789. In a short time the country was nearly wholly subdued, but it required several years before the Maharatta authority could be properly established in a region where every village was a fortress; and in fact, according to European ideas, its reduction never was accomplished.

At this period an arrangement was made with the Peshwa, by which he was acknowledged the sovereign and paramount lord of all the conquests made by Ali Bahauder in Bundelcund, who engaged to obey him and furnish a tribute, but neither of these conditions were in reality ever fulfilled. In the mean time Raja Himmut Bahauder, afraid that the return of tranquillity would bring about the downfal of his own power, was continually exciting disaffection and disturbances in all the districts subject to the Maharattas, in which efforts he was well seconded by the restless and turbulent dispositions of the native chiefs. The Nabob Ali Bahauder died in 1802, during the blockade of Callinjer; which he was unable to take, having been 14 years employed in the re-

duction of Bundelcund; at the end of which his progress was no greater than it had been in the third year. Shumshere Bahauder, his third son, was then in his 18th year, and resident at Poona, and Raja Himmut Bahauder, whose influence was now predominant, appointed a distant Mahommedan relation, named Ghunee Bahauder, to act as regent during his absence.

About this time the war of the British with Dowlet Row Sindia and the other Maharatta chiefs originated, consequent to the treaty of Bassein with the Peshwa; and it appeared the intention of Holkar to use the influence of Shumshere Bahauder as a means of invading the British possessions in the Benares province, through Bundelcund. Raja Himmut Bahauder also, foreseeing the annihilation of his own power by the success of the latter, determined to endeavour to effect the transfer of the province to the British, on securing an advantageous indemnity for himself. When affairs were in this state, a proposal was made on the part of the Peshwa, for a cession of a portion of territory in Bundelcund, in lieu of the districts in the Deccan, which had been ceded by the treaty of Bassein. This proposition having been accepted by the British government, a deed of cession to the East India Company of territory in Bundelcund of 32 lacks and 16,000 rupees, in place of the subsidy, and of four lacks for the expense of subduing it. By this arrangement, the Peshwa, whose authority over the conquests of Ali Bahauder had been merely nominal, and who had never derived any revenue from it, was enabled to liquidate the claims of the British government, for the payment of the subsidiary force which protected his hereditary possessions.

The occupation of the province of Bundelcund during the war by the British troops, became necessary for the defence of the countries in the Doab, as well as of the town and district of Mirzapoor, and the city of Benares, which were all exposed to invasion from this quarter: nor without it could the secure navigation of the Jumna be depended on, from the restless and turbulent characters of the Bundela chiefs. Subsequent to this period, while the British detachment was occupied with the siege and conquest of Calpee, a conciliatory negociation was opened with Shumshere Bahauder, to whom a territory of 4 lacks of rupees per annum was secured in the Peshwa's remaining share of Bundelcund, of which he was afterwards appointed governor. With the Soubahdar of Jhansi, and the Rajas of Dulteen and Simtheer, conciliatory arrangements were also concluded, and a short time afterwards with the Rajas of Chuckaree, Jeyhtpoor and Bejaour; and by the measures then adopted, every hereditary chieftain, who possessed power or influence in Bundelcund, was either conciliated or subdued, and the country generally placed in due subjection to the British authority. Raja Himmut Bahauder died in 1814, after which his territories

were resumed by the British government, his irregular troops disbanded, and his family provided for.

On the acquisition of this province in 1804, Bundelcund was formed into the jurisdiction of a magistrate, subordinate to the Benares court of circuit, but since that period its geographical distribution has undergone various modifications. At present, on the extensive boundaries of Bundelcund are situated the territories of Nana Govind Row of Calpee; of Siva Row Bhow, the soubahdar of Jhansi; of Bickermajeet Singh, the Raja of Aurebah and Tehree; and also the territory of Raja Murdun Singh; the district of Bellary and Jubbulpoor, belonging to the Nagpore Raja; and the territories of the Raja of Rewah and other petty chiefs which intervene between the eastern boundaries of Bundelcund; the dominions of the Nagpoor Raja, and that part of the Allahabad district situated to the south of the Jumna.

With all the above chiefs, actual treaties of amity existed in 1807 on the part of the British government, except the Raja Bickermajeet of Aurebah and Tehree; the Raja Murdun Singh of Gurrahkota, and the Raja of Rewah. The Bondela chiefs being thus relieved from all apprehension of violence and extortion, and confirmed in the possession of their legitimate rights, it was expected that their interests would be permanently concerned in maintaining a faithful adherence to the superior power, and that a habitual sense of fealty and obligation would induce them cheerfully to submit their disputes to its arbitration and decision, which would otherwise furnish an interminable source of agitation and warfare. It was not, however, intended to guarantee to the several chiefs their respective possessions against any other power than our own. The stipulations to which they bound themselves, were in return for the recognition of their rights, and for their security against any attempts on the part of the British government to disturb the enjoyment of them. It was then thought, that to guarantee the several chiefs against the effect of those mutual differences and disputes to which they are, from their martial and uncivilized habits, peculiarly addicted, would have involved the troops stationed in the province in a scene of perpetual conflict, and laid the foundation of unceasing disorder. In this predicament, the only probable means of preventing or limiting these contests, was to require them to submit their differences to the decision of the British government, which, however, refused all guarantee of their respective possessions. This extreme and over anxious caution arose from the inconvenience experienced in consequence of defensive alliances with petty states, and a great solicitude to avoid the necessity of active interference in their affairs. In 1809, however, when the plunderer, Meer Khan, approached the frontier and requested to be informed what petty states were under British protection, he

was told, that not only Raja Kishore Singh, and Raja Bukht Singh, but all those persons who held their lands under a sunnud from the British government were considered to be under its protection, in which number were comprehended the Raja of Ditteah, and the Subahdar of Jhansi. Ten years subsequent experience has evinced, that the form of government thus bestowed on the Bondela chiefs, although devoid of external symmetry, is quite sufficient to insure the revival of agriculture and commerce, and to renovate the prosperity of a region that had been desolated for half a century.

The exposed situation of Bundelcund, from its having so extensive a line of frontier, open on all sides except the east to attacks of banditti from the territories of the neighbouring independent chiefs, must render the peace of the district, and security of the inhabitants, in some respects precarious even under the operation of the best regulated police. The civil power, also, acted under obvious disadvantages in its endeavours towards the establishment of those arrangements which constitute an efficient police, in a district which has been so much the scene of military exploits as Bundelcund. But, notwithstanding these untoward circumstances, on a comparative view of the offences committed in the respective districts of the Benares division in 1811, fewer crimes of atrocity appear to have been perpetrated in Bundelcund, than in any of the others; and it further appears, that crimes have not been prevalent in it, at any period of time since its annexation to the British dominions. The few instances that occur of incursions being made into Bundelcund by banditti residing beyond the western frontier, compared with what occurs in the neighbouring district of Agra, is not certainly owing to any superiority of the Bundelcund police, but to the influence and controul which the magistrate, in his capacity of political agent to the governor-general, exercises over the conduct of the independent chiefs, which has practically been found effectual in procuring their ready compliance with requisitions having reference to the peace of the district. The interposition of this influence also proves equally efficacious in obviating the embarrassments that might otherwise arise in the judicial and revenue departments, in consequence of certain natives of high rank holding extensive landed possessions under an exemption from the ordinary jurisdiction of the courts.

Footpad robbery and cozzauky, or robbery on horseback, are the only serious offences prevalent. The first usually happens towards the skirts of the district, near the ghauts or passes, and the latter is almost exclusively confined to the pergunnah of Koonch, where the cozzauks make their appearance, and again return to the narrow slip of country belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, intervening between the northern boundary of Bundelcund and the southern boundary of Agra, which is the only part of the district liable to the incursions of foreign marauders.

From the records of the magistrate's office, it does not appear that the crime of gang robbery was ever general in Bundelcund. Most of the Bondelas are possessed of but little personal property, and there is little merchandize or floating capital stirring within its limits. Neither is it the custom, as in other districts, for the merchants and bankers to have their property sent by messengers, or foot carriers, a practice which offers the greatest temptation to the commission of gang robbery. This species of crime is also attended with extraordinary risk in Bundelcund, where the population is so scanty, that the personal character and circumstances of every individual are known, at and near the place of his residence, and the country is so open and bare of jungle, that it would be impossible for a gang of any magnitude to commit depredations, and afterwards conceal themselves from the researches of the police. Banditti attempting to enter the district would probably be intercepted by the frontier chiefs under British protection, while endeavouring to penetrate the interior; but this remark does not apply to the boundaries contiguous to Sindia's dominions, from whence small parties of Pindarries occasionally enter, and retreat with the utmost rapidity.

Burglaries and thefts are not crimes of frequent occurrence in Bundelcund. This is partly owing to the same causes which tend to the suppression of gang robberies; but is also ascribable to the dispositions and habits of the land-holders, which are altogether adverse to the practice, so common in all the other districts under the Bengal Presidency, of harbouring thieves and robbers, with a view to participate in their booty. Occasional instances may be discovered of zemindars conniving at criminal acts, but these are restricted to the lowest classes, the Bundelcund landed proprietors considering it highly disreputable to their characters, should a thief be found domiciliated on their farms or estates, and on this account they frequently expel from their villages persons of suspected character. The inhabitants also are industrious and obedient to the constituted authorities, and the proportion of Mahommedans, among whom the most dissolute and disorderly members of society are usually found, bear but a small ratio to the whole number. Under the former native governments, the village watchmen were held responsible by the zemindars, and the latter by the controuling power, for the recovery or reimbursement of stolen property. In 1815, the magistrate had 47 police stations under his controul, some situated 70 and 80 miles from head quarters.

The average jumma, or land-assessment to the revenue, before the cession of this territory, was 2,741,104 rupees; but little dependence could be placed on the revenue accounts, and the imperfection of the public records was such as to render them wholly inadequate to guide the judgment of government, either in

determining on the sufficiency of the present rate, or in estimating the available resources of the province.

	Rupees.
The jumma of Bundelcund in the financial year 1216 (1809-10) was	2,483,981
Ditto 1217 (1810-11)	2,710,890
Ditto 1218 (1811-12)	2,814,779
Ditto 1219 (1812-13)	2,886,161
Ditto 1220 (1813-14)	2,885,430

(Public MS. Documents, Guthrie, J. Grant, Scott, Ironside, Rennell, &c. &c.)

VINDHYA MOUNTAINS.—The Vindhyan chain of mountains, by which the great Gangetic plain is bounded on the south, commences in the province of Bahar, from whence it probably extends to Ramisseram in the straits of Ceylon, near to what is called Cape Comorin by the Europeans. One ridge of hills begins at Rhotas and Sasseram on the banks of the Sone, passes behind Mirzapoor and Allahabad, and between Banda and Singpoor takes a large sweep to the south, then bends north to Gualior, and from thence behind Agra and Delhi, being the northern boundary of the Vindhyan mountains; but it nowhere attains to any great altitude. The portion of this ridge that passes through Bundelcund, has a very similar appearance to the part of the same range that passes through the Shahabad district in Bahar, only it is less sterile and rugged, for the trees in most places ascend to the very summit of the hills, and it is only in particular parts, that the table land on the top is bounded by an abrupt precipice of rock, such as surrounds the whole eastern end of the ridge. On the summit of this range is a table land of great extent, from 500 to 1200 feet of perpendicular height above the level of the great Gangetic plain. From the side next the Ganges there project many small ridges of the same composition, which extend towards the Ganges and Jumna, as at Sasseram, Chunar, Mirzapoor, Allahabad, and at Famos, where a ridge not only penetrates across the channel of the Jumna, as others in several places do, but rises into a small rocky hill on the east side, thus forming the only hill in the ancient kingdom of Antarbeda, now called the Doab.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

BANDA.—This place is situated about 90 miles west of the fortress of Allahabad, and as the residence of the public functionaries is now the modern capital of Bundelcund. Lat. 25° 30′ N. long. 80° 20′ E. The country immediately adjacent consists chiefly of small grained granite, some of which contains red felspar, white quartz, and black mica; while some is composed of white felspar and quartz, with black mica. Besides the granite, this hill contains also large masses of quartz and felspar, very irregularly mixed, rather than aggregated into one solid rock. The town of Banda, which a few years ago

was a village of no great size, is now become a large and populous place, its prosperity having been greatly accelerated by the gunge, or mart, and other works erected by Mr. Richardson, while magistrate of the district.—*(F. Buchanan, Guthrie, &c.)*

MAHOBAH.—A large town in the province of Allahabad, but at present mostly in ruins, 28 miles S. W. from Banda. Lat. 25° 20′ N. long. 79° 5′ E. Around this town many temples, tombs and ruins are scattered, indicating a former state of opulence and importance; and on the rocky height above the town are the remains of a fortress. Near to Mahobah there is a large tank formed by raising a vast dam of large granite stones, from hill to hill across a valley, where, during the rains, a body of water two miles in circumference accumulates.—*(Fitzclarence, &c.)*

PANNAH *(Panna)*.—This town stands on a barren rocky plain above the ghauts. Lat. 24° 45′ N. long. 80° 13′ E. 37 miles S. E. from Chatterpoor, and 15 from Adjyghur. It is still an extensive place, and contains several large dwelling houses built of stone, besides many handsome temples, in one of which is an idol, reported to have a diamond eye of immense value and brilliancy. There are also numerous large tanks, or lakes of water, abounding with geese, ducks, and other aquatic birds; and on the margin of the largest are still to be seen the ruins of a palace, in which Raja Chuttersal resided when sovereign of Bundelcund, defended by two small forts joined by a stone wall, which protected the palace on the flanks and rear, while the tank rendered all approach in front impracticable.

In approaching Pannah from Banda, the table land above the ascent is more level and freer from rocks than that in the Shahabad district, but it exhibits no signs of cultivation, even within three miles of Pannah. The whole plain on the table land for several miles round Pannah in all directions, wherever it happens to be of a gravelly nature is said to produce diamonds. In most parts the soil is very red, in others it has only a slight tinge of that colour, and is of a dark brown. This soil is from 2 to 8 cubits deep, and, where diamonds are found, contains many small pebbles. The diamonds are found intermixed with these, but never adhering to any stone or pebble. The workmen lift up the gravelly earth, throw it into a shallow pit filled with water, and wash out the earth. They then spread the gravel thin on a smooth piece of board, and separate the useless pebbles with their hands, moving eight or ten pieces at a time, so that no diamond can escape their notice. Many days are thus spent without success, but a very few diamonds in the course of the year repay the workman for his labour. The greater proportion of the diamonds are not worth more than 500 rupees, but a considerable number are found worth from 500 to 1000 rupees,

very few exceeding the sum last mentioned. The Pannah Raja is said to possess one valued at 50,000 rupees, for which he cannot find a purchaser. The whole diamonds are collected at one house, where they are weighed and sold to the merchants residing at Pannah. The workmen are allowed about three-fourths of the value of those about the size of a pea, or still smaller; two-thirds of the value of those about the size of a hazel nut; and one-half of the value of those larger than a filbert; but of these last few are discovered. Any man may dig who pleases, and it is said that on an average, about 1000 men are employed in the search. The Raja has guards all round, and some watchmen attend the labourers, but no precaution to hinder smuggling is apparent. The workmen are mostly Rajpoots, and seemingly in great poverty. The men appointed to guard them are common Peons, whose virtue certainly within the British territories is not usually found impregnable, but probably the prompt punishment, and barbarous severity of such petty chiefs as the Pannah Raja, who possesses the power of life and death, terrifies them from frequent breaches of trust. The workmen on the spot assert, that the generation of diamonds is always going forward, and that they have just as much chance of success in searching earth that has been fourteen or fifteen years unexamined, as in digging what has never been disturbed.

These diamond mines are supposed to have been the Panassa of Ptolomy. During the reign of Acber they were estimated at eight lacks of rupees annually. and they also formed a considerable source of public revenue, as well as of mercantile profit during the government of the native chiefs of Bundelcund, and of Ali Bahadur, its last Maharatta conqueror. During the reign of Raja Chuttersal (about A.D. 1750), the duties levied at Pannah, and the profits accruing to government from the diamond mines, were estimated at 4 lacks of rupees per annum; their modern profits are supposed to be comparatively insignificant, and are wholly relinquished to the native chiefs by the British government.—*(F. Buchanan, Twemlow, MSS. &c.)*

KUCKERETLEE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 38 miles S. by W. from Callinjer. Lat. 24° 36′ N. long. 79° 37′ E.

LOHARGONG.—This place stands about 40 miles S. by W. from Callinjer, and has for ten years past been a military post of some importance, being intended to maintain the line of communication between Bundelcund and the British forces stationed in the Nagpoor dominions and at Hosseinabad. The government has in consequence incurred the expense of deepening a tank and digging two wells 40 feet in depth, the last 20 feet through a bed of solid rock.

JEITPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 22 miles N.N.W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 25° 17′ long. 79° 32′ E.

KUTAHNEE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 9 miles N. N. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 25° 2′ N. long. 79° 37′ E.

MULHARA *(Mulahara)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 10 miles N. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 25° 4′ N. long. 79° 45′ E.

PULLEHRA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 21 miles N. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 25° 2′ N. long. 79° 19′ E.

ATTARA.—A town in the Allahabad province, 16 miles N. from Callinjer. Lat. 25° 20′ N. long. 80° 35′ E.

CHATTERPOOR *(Chattrapura)*.—This town is situated below the ghauts, about 135 miles W. S. W. from the city of Allahabad. Lat. 24° 56′ N. long. 79° 40′ E. It was founded, while Bundelcund was ruled by its native chiefs, by Raja Chuttersal, and was occasionally his place of residence, which rendered it flourishing and an important commercial mart, being a sort of inland enterport for the trade carried on between Mirzapoor and the Deccan. From this city, and from the diamond mines of Pannah, almost the whole of the sayer duties were levied, as there was then no other mercantile town of magnitude in Bundelcund; these duties, in the town of Chatterpoor alone, are said to have amounted to four lacks of rupees per annum. Chatterpoor is extensive and well built, the houses being mostly of stone; but compared with its former flourishing condition it is now desolate. When Bundelcund was ceded to the British, this town, with a great portion of the surrounding territory, was occupied by Kooar Loni Sah, one of the innumerable petty chiefs of that distracted province. Travelling distance from Agra 212 miles; from Benares 237; from Nagpoor 302; from Oujeen 320; from Calcutta 698; and from Bombay 747 miles.—*(MSS. Ironside, Rennell, &c.)*

RAJEGHUR *(Rajaghar)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 24 miles S. E. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 24° 45′ N. long. 79° 59′ E.

CALLINJER.—This town and fortress are situated in the Bundelcund district, about 835 miles W. S. W. from the city of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 6′ N. long. 80° 25′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Callinjer is a stone fort, situated on a lofty mountain. Here is an idol named Kalbihroop, 18 cubits in height. At the distance of 20 coss from the fort, husbandmen sometimes find small diamonds, and in the neighbourhood is an iron mine." At that period this place was of such importance as to have a considerable tract of country in the Allahabad province attached to it, of which the following is the description from the same authority. "Circar Callinjer, containing 11 mahals; measurement 508,273 begahs, revenue 23,839,474 dams; seyurghal 614,580 dams. This circar furnishes 1210 cavalry, 12 elephants, and 18,000 infantry."

Rajas of Callinjer are mentioned by the Mahommedan historians so early as A. D. 1008, but it was not conquered until 1203, and then not permanently

retained. In 1545 it was stormed by the troops of Shere Khan, the Afghan, who lost his life during the assault by the explosion of some ammunition. In 1803 the town and district were ceded to the British by the Maharatta Peshwa, along with the rest of Bundelcund, in exchange for other lands nearer his own capital. The Maharattas had long claimed tribute from this territory, but derived no benefit from it, being in reality utterly unable to enforce their authority, or to coerce the inhabitants of a country so strong by nature, and so turbulently disposed.

The fortress of Callinjer resembles in its situation, and exceeds that of Gualior in size and strength. It is built on a high rock of great extent, which forms one of the ranges of mountains extending from Rhotas or Sasseram to the confines of Ajmeer; and the works are so extensive, that to garrison it sufficiently would require a body of 5000 men. After the invasion of Bundelcund by Ali Bahauder and Raja Himmut Bahauder, the siege of this place was attempted; but at an early period, for want of a battering train, was converted into a blockade, which lasted for many years, and without ultimate success. The power and influence of the Kelladar of Callinjer were the chief obstacles to the success of Ali Bahauder, during the five last years of his life, and compelled him to encamp a considerable part of his army in the vicinity of that fortress. The same opposition with increased energy was continued after the cession of the country to the British, and Callinjer became an asylum for all the disaffected and banditti in the province. After many ineffectual attempts to obtain possession by an amicable arrangement with the kelladar, or governor, it was in 1812 besieged in form by a British detachment, which was repulsed with great slaughter in an attempt to carry this nearly impregnable fortress by storm. The garrison, however, although victorious, were so intimidated by the desperation of the assault, that they surrendered the place a few days afterwards on capitulation.

SEURAH.—A town in the Allahabad province, 21 miles N. by W. from Callinjer. Lat. 25° 21′ N. long. 80° 20′ E.

MURFAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 14 miles E. N. E. from Callinjer. Lat. 25° 12′ N. long. 80° 43′ E.

BISRAMGHAUT.—A pass, or road, over the range of mountains near Adjyghur, and leading from Callinjer to Pannah. It is a mile in length, and of very difficult ascent for artillery or wheeled carriages. In the centre there is some table land and a well of good water, but on the top water cannot be procured, so that a detachment must either proceed two miles further to a small rivulet, or to Pannah, which is eleven miles from the bottom of the ghaut.—*(Twemlow, &c.)*

BUCHONE.—A town in the Allahabad province, 27 miles W. by S. from Callinjer. Lat. 25° 2′ N. long. 80° 7′ E.

ADJYGHUR.—This place is situated in lat. 25° N. long. 80° 15′ E. at nearly equal distances from Callinjer and Pannah. The fortress consists of a wall of loose stones, raised round the edge of a very high and steep hill. The table land within the fort is a mile in length by 7 or 800 yards the average breadth, covered with stones and coarse grass, except in some places which have been cleared by the officers and men on duty. It is inaccessible except by the paths which have been made up to the different gates, which are defended by many walls and gates, one behind another, and all of difficult ascent. Within the fort are three large reservoirs of water cut in solid rock, and the ruins of three Hindoo temples. The name signifies the impregnable fortress.

In 1809, it was besieged by a British army, and after a stout resistance, in which considerable loss was experienced by the assailants, was evacuated by the garrison. When the family of Lutchman Dowah, the refractory zemindar of Adjyghur, was ordered to be removed, an old man, his father in law, was sent into the women's apartments, to prepare the females for their removal. He not returning after some time had elapsed, the house was entered by the roof, when it was found he had cut the throats of all the women and children, eight in number, and afterwards his own. The deed must have been perpetrated entirely with the consent and assistance of the females, as the persons stationed at the door never heard the slightest cries while the catastrophe was performing. *(Twemlow, 11th Register, MSS. &c.)*

NAGONE.—A large village, meanly built with mud and tiles, situated about 30 miles south of Callinjer. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 80° 35′ E. Near to Nagone is a fort consisting of two stone walls, one within the other, surrounded by a ruinous ditch. Within this fort the Raja or chief of Nagone resides with his family. *(Twemlow, &c.)*

SOHAUL.—A town in the Allahabad province, 37 miles S. S. E. from Callinjer. Lat. 24° 38′ N. long. 80° 49′ E.

RUENGURRA.—A town in the Allahabad province, 75 miles S. by W. from Callinjer. Lat. 24° 2′ N. long. 80° 25′ E.

REUNNA.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 86 miles S. S. E. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 23° 52′ E. long. 80° 20′ E.

MYER.—A large and meanly built town, surrounded by a mud wall, in the province of Allahabad, within the line of British protection, situated about 60 miles S. by E. from Callinjer. Lat. 24° 17′ N. long. 80° 50′ E. This place belongs to an independent chieftain, who resides in a small but strong fort close to the town, and who possesses a tract of country extending from the territory of the Nagone chief to a village called Tacka, 12 miles from Bellary, where the dominions of the Nagpoor Raja commence. The fort consists of two stone walls, one

within the other; the outer one surrounded by a wet ditch filled with water, 60 yards broad on the western side, but only 20 on the southern, and still narrower on the remaining sides. Round the ditch there is a kind of glacis, which would prevent the effectual breaching of the wall, unless by a battery on the edge of the ditch, and this applies to every point except the gateway on the north side, which in consequence is the weakest part.—*(Twemlow, &c.)*

BELLARY.—From the extent of ruins seen round this town, it probably was once of more importance than it has lately been, but it had suffered greatly from the repeated incursions of the Pindaries. In the neighbourhood are some fine Hindoo temples. A little to the south of this place the ancient province of Gundwana may be said to commence. Lat. 23° 46′ N. long. 80° 28′ E. 30 miles north from Gurrah.

AHMUDDAH *(or Moddha)*.—A large village in Bundelcund, 32 miles south from Banda, in which is a fort with high brick walls, surrounded by a ditch, but not strong, the wall being exposed nearly to the bottom from an eminence near the village.—*(Twemlow, &c.)*

JHANSI.—The capital of a petty state within the line of British protection, and under the superintendance of the magistrate of Bundelcund, situated about 82 miles N. N. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 25° 32′ N. long. 78° 34′ E. In 1790, when visited by Dr. William Hunter, this was a considerable town; but commanded by a stone fort on a high hill, to the S. E. of which, at the distance of 500 yards, is another hill nearly on a level with the fort. At that period the district dependent on the fort, yielded a revenue of 4 lacks of rupees per annum, and the town was a considerable thoroughfare between the Deccan, Furruckabad, and the cities of the Doab, and contained a manufactory of bows, arrows, and spears; the principal weapons of the Bondelah tribes.

This petty state is but of recent formation, yet from a concurrence of fortunate circumstances has survived many others of greater antiquity. The territory of Jhansi appears to have formed a part of the province of Bundelcund, which was made over to the Peshwa's ancestor Bajerow, in consequence of the aid which the former afforded to the Raja against the invasion of the Bungish Patan of Furruckabad. About A. D. 1743, the existing Peshwa took possession of one half of the lands of the Teary (or Tehree) Raja, and half of those belonging to Ditteah. Half of the last, and the whole of the first portion, composed the small soubahdary of Jhansi. In 1803, Siva Row Bhow, the soubahdar, in a statement which he transmitted to Lord Lake, and which formed the basis of the treaty then negotiated, distinctly acknowledged that he held his country under the authority of the Peshwa.

In February 1804, a treaty was arranged by Captain John Baillie, the agent

in Bundelcund on the part of the British government, with Siva Row Bhow, by which he professed his entire submission to the British government, and to his Highness the Peshwa, to whom he engaged to pay the same tribute for which he had hitherto been liable, the British government demanding no tribute whatever. He engaged also to refer to the British government for adjustment, any dispute that might arise between him and any chief in obedience to the British government, and to assist in punishing the disaffected in any of the British possessions adjacent to his territories. On the other hand, the British government engaged to assist him in quelling any disturbances that might arise in his own country, the expense to be defrayed by the party calling for aid; and on all occasions when his troops were acting in conjunction with those of his allies, he engaged to delegate the command of the united forces to the British officer. In addition to these stipulations, he engaged never to retain in his service any British subject or European, without the acquiescence of the Governor General. In 1812, the Bhow of Jhansi applied at Calcutta to have the treaty of 1804 rendered hereditary; but Lord Minto did not think himself authorized to interfere between the Peshwa, and a chief who appeared to be one of his feudatories.—*(Hunter, Treaties, Richardson, &c. &c.)*

Barwah.—A village in Bundelcund, 10 miles S. S. E. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 25′ N. long. 78° 39′ E. In 1790, the Hindoo soubahdar of this district was an uncommonly accomplished person, and had acquired a very considerable knowledge of European sciences. At the advanced age of 60 he had formed the project of studying the English language, in order to comprehend the Encyclopedia Britannica, of which he had acquired a copy. Such, however, is the inconsistency of human nature, and the strength with which Hindoo prejudices adhere, that about five years afterwards, having been seized with some complaint which he considered incurable, he repaired to Benares and there drowned himself in the Ganges.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

Oochar.—This ancient town is situated about 8 miles south from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 26′ N. long. 78° 38′ E. In remote times this was a city of great note, the Raja of Ouncha being then the head of the Bondelah tribes, from whom the other Rajas received the Teeka, or token of investiture. In 1790, his revenue was reduced to one lack of rupees and his consequence in proportion.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

Dogorah.—A town in the Allahabad province, 42 miles S. S. E. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° N. long. 78° 52′ E.

Kotrah.—A town in the province of Allahabad, situated on the north side of the Betwah river, 80 miles S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 52′ N. long. 79° 14′ E.

PARASSEN.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 13 miles S. S. W. from Calpee. Lat. 25° 59′ N. long. 79° 22′ E.

ERECH.—An ancient town in the province of Allahabad, 13 miles S. by W. from Kotrah. Lat. 25° 49′ long. 79° 2′ E.

DITTEAH *(Dattya)*.—The capital of a small principality under British protection, situated 43 miles S. S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 43′ N. long. 78° 25′ E. This town is about a mile and a half long and nearly as much in breadth, and in 1790 was populous and well built, the houses being mostly of stone, and covered with tiles. It is surrounded by a stone wall, and furnished with gates. The Raja has a palace without the town, on the south side on an eminence, from whence there is a view of the country as far as Pechoor, Narwar, and Jhansi. Close to this hill is an extensive lake. The inhabitants are a robust handsome race of men, have a great reputation as a warlike people, and make excellent soldiers. In 1790, the surrounding district yielded a revenue of nine or ten lacks of rupees annually, subject to the payment of a tribute to the Maharattas. During the reign of Aurengzebe, Ditteah was the capital of Dhoolput Roy, a Bondelah Raja of some celebrity.

On the cession of Bundelcund by the Peshwa to the British in 1804, Raja Parakhyit of Ditteah joined the British standard, and a treaty was concluded with him, by which he was confirmed in possession of the territory, which from ancient times had descended to him by inheritance. In consideration of this favour, he agreed to consider the Peshwa and the British as his perpetual allies, and agreed to refer to the latter for the adjustment of any disputes that might arise with the neighbouring chiefs professing obedience to the British government: reciprocal assistance to be given in quelling any disturbances in the contiguous territories of the contracting parties. The modern territories of the Ditteah Raja do not properly border on Bundelcund, being bounded by those of the Bhow of Jhansi, and the Raja of Tehree or Teary. This chief considers himself, and is generally acknowledged to be, what is usually termed a Badshahy Raja, that is, holding his principality directly under the authority of the crown, and therefore not tributary to any state. Ambajee, when in the management of the Narwar district and territory of Gohud, levied occasional contributions from the Raja of Ditteah; but not under the denomination of fixed revenue or tribute. The Vinchoor Cur, a great Maharatta dignitary, possessed many lands in this quarter, and had many disputes with the Ditteah Raja regarding the pergunnah of Oochar, which were referred to the arbitration of the British government; but the former having forfeited his possessions by his adherence to the Peshwa Bajerow, there remained no necessity for any further investigation, and most of the

Vinchoor Cur's possessions, east of the Sinde, were conferred on the Ditteah chief.—*(Hunter, Richardson, Public MS. Documents, Scott, &c. &c.)*

BIKKUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 45 miles S. S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 46′ N. long. 78° 30′ E.

TEHREE *(or Teary)*.—The capital of a petty chief under British protection, whose territories are situated on the north western boundaries of Bundelcund, 51 miles west from Chatterpoor. Lat. 24° 45′ N. long. 78° 52′ E. The Tehree Raja appears to have been an independent chief, ever since the dissolution of the Mogul empire, never having been considered tributary to Sindia, or any other more powerful state, although, like all other small principalities, liable to have contributions extorted by such marauders as possessed sufficient strength. About A. D. 1777, Raja Puchin Singh, the then reigning Raja of Tehree, in a fit of furious mental derangement, put the wife of the late Raja Sawunt Singh, his predecessor, to death. On recovering from his fit of passion, being seized with remorse, he abdicated the throne, and became a wandering religious mendicant. His pilgrimage was traced as far as Chittercole, after which he was never heard of.

In 1809, great advantage was experienced from the attachment of Raja Bickermajeet Singh, when the detachment under Colonel Martindell proceeded from Chatterpoor to Seronge, for the purpose of co-operating with the force under the command of Colonel Close, against Ameer Khan. At that period the Raja earnestly solicited to be admitted among the number of British dependants, and to be permitted to execute engagements similar to those concluded with the Bondelah chiefs. At present the villages belonging to the Tehree state are so intermixed with others, the property of the adjacent chiefs, that it is impossible to describe them with accuracy; in 1812 his revenue was estimated at four lacks of rupees.—*(Richardson, &c. &c.)*

GOOLGUNGE *(Gulganj)*.—A town in the Allahabad province, 20 miles S. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 24° 42′ N. long. 79° 29′ E.

BEJAWER.—A town in the province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund, 24 miles S. by W. from Chatterpoor, the chief of which, Raja Ruttim Singh, is a dependant on the British government. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 79° 32′ E.

MALTOWN.—A town and fortress on the S. W. boundaries of Bundelcund, near the hills which separate that district from Malwah, about 60 miles E. by N. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 17′ N. long. 78° 37′ E. The fortress of Maltown is situated on, and commanding a ghaut or pass known by the name of Maltown. The route by the Maltown ghaut is the easiest, and the one most usually taken, for invading Bundelcund, both on account of the practicability of the road, and because it is plentifully supplied with water. By this route Ameer Khan pene-

trated into Bundelcund, of which province this place may be called the key on the western quarter. Between Maltown and Seronge, villages are interspersed, belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia and the Nana of Calpee.—*(Richardson, &c.)*

HIRAPOOR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 47 miles S. by W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 24° 20′ N. long. 79° 22′ E.

BUCKSUAH.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 53 miles S. by W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 24° 12′ N. long. 79° 27′ E.

NUGUR.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 81 miles S. S. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 23° 54′ N. long. 79° 8′ E.

GURRAKOTA.—The capital of a petty state in the province of Allahabad, 90 miles S. S. W. from Chatterpoor. Lat. 23° 44′ N. long. 79° 8′ E. In 1812, the Nagpoor Raja attempted the subversion of this principality, then governed by Raja Murdun Singh, who earnestly solicited the protection of the British government, which being refused he had recourse to Sindia, and in return for the assistance received, ceded half his territory, including this place. During the Pindary agitations, the Raja managed to obtain possession again, through the disaffection of the garrison, and continuing refractory, a British detachment was marched against it in October, 1818. On the 26th of that month the batteries were opened so effectually, that on the 30th the breach was reported practicable, and would have been stormed had not the garrison surrendered in the morning, and the Raja himself soon after. The besiegers sustained no loss except about 30 killed and wounded by an unfortunate explosion in the mortar battery.

SINGOLE.—A town in the province of Allahabad, 25 miles N. N. W. from Gurrah. Lat. 23° 29′ N. long. 79° 51′ E.

THE DISTRICT OF CAUNPOOR.

This district consists of territory ceded to the British government by the Nabob of Oude, and mostly comprehended within the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, between the 26th and 27th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the Etaweh district; on the south by the river Jumna; to the east it has the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories; and on the west the river Jumna. The Caunpoor division is a segment of the vast plain, which extends from the Bay of Bengal to the northern mountains, and its soil is not only all arable, but with proper cultivation is capable of being extremely productive. In the neighbourhood of the town and camp, agriculture has profited by the stimulus of an European market and high prices. Indian corn, barley, and wheat, are there cultivated; and turnips, cabbages, and European vegetables, are, during the season, in great abundance, not only in the gardens of the officers, but in the

fields belonging to native farmers. Grapes, peaches, with a variety of fruit, have long been supplied by the Europeans. In their season sugar canes, and other crops, flourish in great luxuriance; cultivation is, however, frequently seen interrupted by the intervention of extensive wastes, which might be easily rendered as productive as the rest of the land.

On the cession of this portion of the Doab in 1801, measures were adopted for fixing here a civil establishment, with a view to the administration of justice, and collection of the revenue, the latter of which was probably in the commencement assessed too high, as it appears from the statement below, that it has not, as in other districts, increased since the first settlement.

Land revenue for the fusly year 1215 (1808-9)	2,699,324
Ditto, 1216	2,717,125
Ditto, 1217	2,722,231
Ditto, 1218	2,726,686
Ditto, 1219, provisionally in perpetuity	2,730,428

Settlement of the land revenue for the second period of five years.

Fusly year 1220 (1813-14)	2,665,994
Ditto, 1221	2,677,965
Ditto, 1222	2,683,841
Ditto, 1223	2,687,740
Ditto, 1224	2,693,611

No estimate approaching to accuracy has ever been made of the population of this district, but from the great extent of land under tillage, the number of inhabitants must be very great, and that they are not so prone to commit depredations as some of the more southern and eastern subjects, is proved by a fact stated by the police superintendant, that within the first six months of 1812, not a single instance of gang robbery had occurred within the limits of the Caunpoor jurisdiction. This is the more surprising when it is considered, that the town of Caunpoor is one of the greatest thoroughfares for inland commerce, as will appear from the following statement of the large sum paid into the Caunpoor treasury, on account of duties received at the custom-house in 1812-13, amounting to 458,000 rupees, and in 1813-14 to 485,000 rupees. Besides Caunpoor, the chief towns are Resoulabad, Jaujemow, and Acberpoor. The average number of prisoners under confinement in the jail throughout the year 1813-14 was 443.—*(Tennant, Lord Valentia, Guthrie, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

CAUNPOOR.—This town stands on the west side of the Ganges, 45 miles S. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 30′ N. long. 80° 13′ E. A brigade of the Bengal army is usually cantoned here, it being considered one of the chief

military stations in the upper provinces. There are barracks for 400 artillery, two King's regiments, one of cavalry, three of native cavalry, and 7000 native infantry. The officers of every description find their own lodgings, which consist of very commodious and elegant bungalows, built without any regularity, on a space extending about six miles along the Ganges. During the dry season the troops here suffer great annoyance from the dust, which they cannot possibly avoid. From the middle of October to the middle of June, there is seldom a shower of rain; the ground consequently becomes parched to a cinder; all vegetation, except on watered fields, being destroyed. The tread of horses, bullocks, elephants, and camels, loosens each day a certain quantity of dust from the surface, which the winds that regularly blow in the afternoon raise into the air in the form of a thick cloud, which nearly hides the sun, and envelopes the station in darkness. The history of the country affords many instances of battles lost and won, according to the direction of the dust, the windward position giving such a decided advantage. Wolves abound here, which frequently dash into some corner of the camp, and carry off children under five years of age, which happen to be straggling among the huts. With the stream the passage has been made from hence to Calcutta in 9 days and a half.—*(Tennant, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c.)*

JAUJEMOW.—A town in the Allahabad province, 8 miles S. S. E. from Caunpoor. Lat. 26° 26′ N. long. 80° 16′ E.

SURAJEPOOR *(Suryapura)*.—A small town in the province of Allahabad, 14 miles E. from Korah. Lat. 26° 10′ N. long. 80° 30′ E.

MANICPOOR.—This town, with the district attached to it, are in the province of Allahabad, but belong to the Nabob of Oude, being within the boundaries of his reserved dominions. In 1582, the town of Manicpoor was a place of some importance, and the capital of a provincial subdivision described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Circar Manicpoor, containing 14 mahals, measurement 666,222 begahs, revenue 33,916,527 dams, seyurghal 2,446,173 dams. This circar furnishes 2,040 cavalry, and 42,900 infantry."

The surface of this district is flat, the soil sandy but fertile, and tolerably well supplied with moisture, a considerable portion of it being enclosed between the north-east bank of the Ganges and the Sye river; but the superior cultivation and prosperity of the contiguous provinces under the British government, render the difference of the two jurisdictions too remarkable to escape the observation even of a native. The principal town is Manicpoor, which stands on the N. E. side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 46′ N. long. 80° 20′ E. about 80 miles S. S. E. from Lucknow. The other towns of note are Mednigunge, Pertaubghur, and Saloon.

DALMOW.—A town in the Manicpoor division, 54 miles south from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 5′ N. long. 80° 56′ E. This was the birth-place of Raja Tickact Roy, and ornamented by him. On the banks of the Ganges here are several handsome pagodas and ghauts, and there is also a fort of some extent.

SALOON *(Salavan.)*—A town belonging to the Nabob of Oude, in the Manicpoor division, 19 miles N. from the town of Manicpoor. Lat. 26° 2′ N. long. 81° 26′ E.

MEDNIGUNGE.—A town belonging to the Nabob of Oude, in the Manicpoor division, 30 miles N. from the city of Allahabad. Lat. 25° 53′ N. long. 81° 54′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF OUDE.

(AYODHYA.)

THIS is one of the smallest provinces of Hindostan Proper, and is situated principally between the 26th and 28th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by various petty districts tributary to Nepaul, from which it is separated by a range of hills and forests; to the south by Allahabad; on the east it has Bahar, and on the west Delhi and Agra. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles, by 100 the average breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "The soubah of Oude is situated in the second climate. The length from circar Gorucpoor to Kanoje includes 135 coss, and the breadth, from the northern mountains of Siddehpoor to the soubah of Allahabad, comprises 115 coss. To the east it has Bahar; to the north lie mountains; Manicpoor bounds it to the south, and Kanoje to the west. The large rivers are the Goggra, the Goomty, and the Sye. In this soubah are five circars divided into 138 pergunnahs. The amount of the revenue is 5,043,454. It supplies 7660 cavalry, 168,250 infantry, and 59 elephants; and is sub-divided into the following districts, viz. 1, Oude; 2, Gorucpoor; 3, Baraitche; 4, Khyrabad; 5, Lucknow."

The whole surface of this province is level, and extremely well watered by large rivers, or by copious streams, which intersect the country, flowing nearly all in a south-east direction. When properly cultivated the land is extremely productive, yielding crops of wheat, barley, rice, and other grains, sugar cane, indigo, poppies for opium, and all the richest articles raised in India. The air and climate are suited to the spontaneous generation of nitre, from the brine of which an inferior culinary salt is procured by evaporating the saltpetre brine to a certain degree, which, although at first much contaminated with bitter salt, may be easily refined to a purer state. Lapis Lazuli is also a production of this province, the colour procured from which sells in England at about nine guineas per ounce. The modern sub-divisions of this province are the same as the ancient. Of these Lucknow, Fyzabad, Khyrabad, Baraitche, with a section of Manicpoor, compose the reserved dominions of the Nabob Vizier of Oude, while the district of Gorucpoor belongs to his British allies. The principal

rivers are the Ganges, which bounds it to the west, the Goggra, and the Goomty; the chief towns are Lucknow, Fyzabad, Oude, Khyrabad, Baraitche and Tanda.

The Hindoo inhabitants of Oude, Benares, and the Doab of the Agra province, are a very superior race, both in their bodily strength and mental qualities, to those of Bengal and the districts south of Calcutta, although the latter have fully as much acuteness and more cunning. The Rajpoots, or military class of them, generally exceed Europeans in stature, have robust frames, and are possessed of every valuable quality in a military point of view. From the long occupation of this province by the Mahommedans, a considerable proportion of the inhabitants profess that religion, and from both persuasions a great number of the Company's best sepoys are procured. Their military habits were long kept on the alert, for until the assumption of the superintendance of Oude by the British government, the whole region was in a state of political anarchy. Every individual travelled either with the prospect of defending himself against robbers, or of exercising that vocation himself, for both of which events he was provided. The peasantry sowed and reaped with their swords and spears, ready for defence or plunder, as occasion offered, and the rents were collected by an irregular banditti, under the denomination of an army, which devastated the country it pretended to protect.

Oude is much celebrated in Hindoo histories as the kingdom of Dasaratha, the father of the great Rama, who extended his empire to the island of Ceylon, which he conquered. At an early period after the first invasion it was subdued by the Mahommedans, and remained, with different vicissitudes, attached to the throne of Delhi, until the dissolution of that empire after the death of Aurengzebe, The first ancestor upon record of the present reigning family was Saadet Khan, a native of Rishapoor, in the province of Khorasan, who was appointed Soubahdar of Oude during the reign of Mahommed Shah. He was succeeded by his nephew, Sefdar Jung, who died A. D. 1756, when the throne was ascended by his son, Shuja ud Dowlah, who reigned until 1775. On his decease his son, Asoph ud Dowlah, was his successor and reigned until 1797; when he was succeeded for a short time by a spurious son, named Vizier Ali, whose illegitimacy being discovered, he was dethroned by Lord Teignmouth, and the government confided to the late Nabob's brother, Saadet Ali, who was proclaimed Vizier of Hindostan and Sovereign of Oude, the 21st of January, 1798.

In 1790, the dominions of Oude occupied all the flat country lying on both sides of the Ganges, (with the exception of Rampoor), between that river and the northern mountains; as also the principal portion of the fertile tract between the Ganges and Jumna, named the Doab, to within 40 miles of Delhi. Ever since the pacification between Lord Clive and Shuja ud Dowlah, in 1765,

this territory had been protected from external enemies, its internal peace preserved, and its dominions extended, by the assistance of a British subsidiary force, the expense of which was defrayed by the Nabobs of Oude. Subsequent to the breaking out of the French revolution, the exigence of the times compelled a large augmentation of this standing army, and the disbursements increased proportionally; but owing to the mismanagement of the Nabob's financial concerns, an uncertainty attended its regular payment, although his territories, under a proper administration, were not only equal to all the necessary expenditure, but capable (as the result verified) of realizing an enormous surplus. By a fatality attending the British influence in Hindostan, it was frequently obliged, in consequence of remote treaties, to maintain on the native thrones weak and profligate princes, who without that support would, in the natural progression of events, have been supplanted by some more able competitors. Their dominions in the mean time suffered by their vices, and their subjects were abandoned to the rapacity of the unprincipled associates of their low pleasures, who by their cruelty and extortion depopulated the country, and drove the inhabitants to a state of desperation. These observations particularly apply to the Oude territories during the long reign of Asoph ud Dowlah; and as an opportunity now occurred, the Bengal presidency deemed it a duty imposed on them to endeavour to procure a better system of government for the great mass of the natives, and at the same time remove the uncertainty which attended the payment of the subsidiary force.

A treaty was in consequence concluded on the 10th of November, 1801, by the conditions of which the undermentioned portions of the Nabob of Oude's territories, yielding a gross revenue of 13,523,274 rupees, were ceded to the British government, in commutation of the subsidy, and of every other claim whatever.

Statement of the Revenue.

Districts.—Korah, Currah, and Etaweh		5,548,577
Reher, &c.		533,374
Furruckabad, &c.		450,001
Karraghur, &c.		210,001
Azimghur, Mow and Bunjun, and Azimghur		695,621
Gorucpoor, &c.	509,853	
Batool	40,000	549,854
Soubah of Allahabad, &c.		934,963
Bareily, Asophabad, and Kelpoory		4,313,457
Nawabgunge, Rehly, and others		119,242
Mahowl, with the exception of Arwul		168,378
Total, Lucknow sicca rupees		13,523,474

In consideration of these cessions, (which in 1813 yielded 17,511,469 rupees,) the British government undertook to defend the Nabob's remaining territories from all foreign and domestic enemies, and liberated him from all future claims of every description; it being expressly stipulated, that no demand should afterwards be made on his highness's treasury for an increase of troops, hostile preparations, or on any account or pretence whatever. The Nabob agreed to dismiss his supernumerary forces, retaining in his pay only four battalions of Nujeebs and Mewatties, 2000 cavalry, and 300 artillery. His excellency also engaged that he would establish in his reserved dominions such a system of administration (to be executed by his own officers), as should be conducive to the prosperity of his subjects, and calculated for the security of their lives and properties. On the 22d of February, 1802, a final arrangement was completed, explanatory of the general principles which should regulate the connexion and intercourse of the two states, as resulting from the treaty, and to obviate and anticipate all future doubts. Upon this occasion the Nabob declared his intention of nominating his second son, Shums ud Dowlah, to the situation of minister for the affairs of government, in which appointment the Marquis Wellesley, then governor-general, concurred. It was further stipulated, that until the formation of a commercial treaty, mutually beneficial, the navigation of the Ganges, and of all other rivers, the boundaries of the two states, should be free and uninterrupted; it still remaining in the power of each government to levy such duties on goods imported as they considered proper, provided they did not exceed those collected by prior usage.

When these arrangements were concluded Saadet Ali assumed the uncontrouled management of his reserved territories, and being a man of abilities greatly superior to the generality of native princes, and habitually disposed to business, retained the conducting of the affairs of government under his own immediate direction. Having no external political relations with the other states of Hindostan, the history of his reign must be entirely restricted to a relation of domestic events, of which the following are the principal, according to chronological order.

On the occasion of Sir John Shore's (Lord Teignmouth) visit to Lucknow in 1797, his lordship employed his utmost influence with the Nabob Asoph ud Dowlah to induce him to establish an improved system of administration within his dominions, and as an indispensable preliminary to that important measure, persuaded the Nabob to banish from his councils his unworthy favorite Raja Jhow Loll, on account of his known hostility to the British government, his abuse of the Nabob's misplaced attachment, combined with his utter incapacity to discharge the important duties of minister. He was in consequence compelled to quit Lucknow and take up his residence at Patna; and it was hoped, from the levity

of the vizier's character, he would soon cease to regret the loss of his favourite, or to wish for his return. In 1802, this individual addressed the Marquis Wellesley from Patna, stating that his distress was extreme, as he had completely exhausted the money and jewels he had brought with him from Lucknow, and not receiving any allowance either from the Nabob or the Company, was reduced, with his family consisting principally of females, to a condition little removed from absolute starvation. Under these circumstances the Governor-General, on his arrival at Patna in 1802, considering the affluence Jhow Loll had formerly enjoyed, the great number of persons, especially females, composing his family, and the exemplary correctness and regularity of his conduct during his residence in the Company's territories, granted for his subsistence a pension of 2000 rupees per month, from the 5th of October, 1801. This was received by the decayed favourite with the utmost gratitude, and being merely personal, was of course subject to resumption in the event of any misconduct.

In 1807, an extraordinary intrigue was discovered, in which Saadet Ali's second brother, commonly called Mirza Jungly, was concerned, which also terminated in his removal from Lucknow to Patna. In 1808, the celebrated eunuch, Almas Ali Khan died, on which event his wealth, which was considerable, was claimed both by the Bhow Begum (the Nabob's mother) and by the Nabob. The first grounded her pretensions on the circumstance of Almas Ali Khan being her servant, while the latter asserted, that as all the property had been acquired in the service of the Oude sovereignty and from the resources of the country, the reigning prince was the legitimate heir of a person who could have no natural ones, and in this view of the subject he was supported by the supreme government. Besides this, many other petty and vexatious disputes arose between the two Begums and the Nabob, who always evinced a strong disinclination to employ the British troops in suppressing the disturbances that occasionally broke out in the Jaghires of the Bhow Begum, the younger Begum, and other persons under the direct protection of the British government; indeed he seemed to have no desire that they should be suppressed by any means. According to the construction of the subsisting treaties, it did not appear that any other measures on the part of the British government were admissible, beyond those of remonstrance, and the resident was directed to endeavour to convince his excellency of the impolicy, as well as injustice, of countenancing disturbances within the lands of his jaghiredars, and the danger to which the general tranquillity of his country would be exposed, not to mention the injury his reputation would sustain by his tolerating insurrection within the limits of his own dominions.

Such, exclusive of some petty insurrections of zemindars, were his principal

internal causes of irritation; with his powerful allies of Bengal various collisions of interest and authority took place, for the British functionaries on his frontiers, after several years experience, found, that all applications to the Nabob for the apprehension of offenders who had sought refuge within his territories, almost invariably failed of success. Although on these occasions this potentate issued prompt orders to his officers, they were either mere matters of form, or so considered by the persons to whom they were addressed. Of these two conclusions the latter appears the most probable, as it would greatly derogate from his excellency's character to suppose him indifferent to the bringing of public offenders to justice, or that the orders issued by him on such occasions were not intended to be authoritative. Yet when the feeble and inefficient system of all native administration is considered, it might be reasonably doubted, whether he in reality possessed a degree of controul over his officers sufficient to enforce their obedience, especially as the granting of an asylum within their jurisdiction to offenders, constituted a regular source of their profits. On some occasions the Nabob evinced a favourable disposition, by permitting the British troops to act within his territories for the express purpose of seizing delinquents, but at other times he proved restive and withheld his consent without assigning any reason. The inconveniences resulting from this line of conduct, and the obstruction it occasioned to the due administration of justice within the British territories contiguous to those of Oude, were such, that one of the first stipulations entered into with his successor authorized the British magistrates to pursue and seize public offenders within the reserved dominions of Oude. The interior management of Saadet Ali's own territories was also extremely defective, and he was repeatedly urged by the Bengal government to adopt a line of conduct more creditable to himself, and more consistent with the obligations of existing treaties; but in vain, for although at one time he had given his consent to a reform, he afterwards retracted it, and as no hopes of success could be entertained from any further endeavours, short of actual compulsion, the further prosecution of the original arrangement was desisted from, and all attempts at a modification were put an end to by his unexpected death.

This event happened on the 11th of July, 1814, when he was suddenly taken ill, and expired before medical assistance could be procured, supposed from apoplexy, or the bursting of a blood vessel. On this emergency every necessary precaution was taken by the resident, for securing the tranquil succession of the legal heir, before the fact of the vizier's demise was publicly known, and the accession of the Nabob Ghazi ud Deen Hyder Rafaat ud Dowlah took place without the smallest interruption or disturbance. On his accession his excellency executed and delivered to the resident an instrument, by which he bound

himself to conform to the provisions of subsisting treaties between the state of Oude and the British government, and a corresponding document, under the seal and signature of the Marquis of Hastings, was transmitted to the vizier. He also acceded to the adjustment of many questions long pending with the British government, and with apparent alacrity acquiesced in the measures adopted for the introduction of the reform recommended to his excellency by Lord Minto. Agreeably to the course followed on the succession of his father Saadet Ali, he assumed the title of Vizier (which had become hereditary in his family) without reference to the Mogul at Delhi.

In October, 1814, Ghazi ud Deen, the new Nabob (then about 40 years of age), proceeded to Caunpoor, where he had a conference with the Governor-General, to whom, as a proof of his attachment to the cause of his allies, then at war with the Nepaulese, he tendered a crore of rupees (10,000,000) by way of loan, which was thankfully accepted. At a subsequent interview his excellency solicited the acceptance of the above sum as a free gift, but the receipt of it was declined, except as a subscription to the six per cent. loan then open, and his consent was afterwards obtained to an arrangement for the permanent assignment of the interest, to the payment of those pensions due from the Oude treasury (amounting to 651,000 rupees annually), under the guarantee of the British government, which at once extinguished an interminable source of debate and vexatious discussion between the vizier and resident, so frequently lamented, yet of such unavoidable recurrence. The war with the Nepaulese being protracted to a second campaign, and the immense preparation for the extirpation of the Pindaries having commenced, a hint was conveyed to the Nabob, that the proffer of a second crore from the hoards of his father, would on account of the pressing exigencies of the times, be extremely seasonable, and gratefully accepted. Ghazi ud Deen without the least hesitation paid the amount at Lucknow in bullion, from whence it was transported to the different quarters of Hindostan; and he then exhibited the singular spectacle of a native prince, a creditor of the British government to an amount exceeding two millions sterling, and regularly receiving the interests thereon. At a subsequent period, the transfer of the Terriani, or low country, acquired from the Nepaulese, an arrangement spontaneously suggested by the Nabob himself, together with a remote and unproductive pergunnah attached to Gorucpoor, was made the means of redeeming one of the crores borrowed, but he still remains a creditor for the other.

For more than forty years the British government had been endeavouring to prevail on the sovereigns of Oude, to establish an improved system of administration, especially in revenue matters, within their hereditary dominions,

but uniformly without succession. The accession of Ghazi ud Deen held out another opportunity, and at the recommendation of the British government, tehsildars (native collectors), with a commission of ten per cent. on the net collections, were appointed, with the view of making a triennial settlement, to ascertain the resources of the Nabob's dominions, and fix the principles on which a future and permanent settlement should be made. Nazims (native judicial officers) were also appointed for the distribution of justice. With these measures, however, the Nabob being very soon dissatisfied, he superseded them, and promulgated regulations of his own, the result of which threatened an extraordinary defalcation of the instalments for the approaching year, and a recurrence to the system of farming as established in the time of his father. Under an Indian prince the department of akhbar (intelligence) is a system of espionage, which pervaded every district of this country, as well as the court and capital, during the life time of Saadet Ali, and furnished daily grounds for the imprisonment of some subject or servant, with a view to confiscation and forfeiture. The expense of it is nearly equal to an efficient police, and the channels of corruption and oppression which it opens, by encouraging false accusations, are destructive of the morals of the people, and of the safety of their property, as well as of the true interests of the sovereign. On the accession of the present nabob, the akhbar establishment was abolished, but the system is so congenial to the habits and principles of native princes, and to the personal character of the present vizier, that he soon revived it. At the earnest solicitation of the British government, soon after the commencement of his reign, he appointed ostensible ministers for the transaction of the public business; but in process of time, after much wavering and inconsistency, the arrangement terminated first in their suspension, and afterwards in their dismissal. The inherent fickleness of the Nabob's disposition, his ready and implicit belief in the scandalous reports of his news writers, and of the intriguing persons around him, destroy the confidence and subvert the authority of his ministers, and preclude the beneficial exercise of any one of their functions; so that if one set retire or be dismissed, a similar state of affairs within a short period of time will be produced with respect to their successors.

As might be expected under circumstances so adverse to internal tranquillity, many revolts took place among contumacious or oppressed zemindars; many gurries or native fortifications were taken and levelled, the whole requiring the interference and active agency of the British military, at a time when their services were urgently wanted elsewhere. The just and fair construction of the terms of subsisting treaties, as referring to the nature and extent of the Vizier's authority, did not appear to warrant any more effectual interposition on the part

of the British government. In construing these, it is required by every principle of justice, that the most liberal and comprehensive meaning should be given to such articles, as are in favour of the party whose weakness presents no security for him but the good faith on which he relied. Much is also gained by escaping the chance of that extremity, which should force the British government to withdraw the Nabob's authority to substitute its own within his territories; for such a necessity, although it might morally exist, could never be made out to the world, and the seizure of his possessions would be universally stigmatized as a premeditated usurpation, the offspring of a base and sordid cupidity. One emergency alone can be supposed capable of driving the British government to a conduct so repugnant to its wishes, which is, the discovery that the Nabob had secretly leagued himself with their enemies, and with them was clandestinely practising its overthrow. An extreme case of this sort, however, could only occur in such a state of absolute desperation, that the Nabob thought the most unpromising conspiracy preferable to a continuation of submission. Under such a condition of affairs, although he has no troops, he might give much trouble; for having a vast command of money, he might cause great mischief, by furnishing secret supplies, and might involve the British government in the trouble and expense of a war, leaving it infinitely difficult to trace his having any concern in the machinations which led to it.

The reservation by treaty of a right to interfere with advice or remonstrance, upon any mismanagement of the Nabob's affairs within his reserved dominions, which might injuriously affect the British interests, implies, that in all other respects the administration of the Nabob is to be free; the uninterrupted exercise of his own authority within the reserved territories having been assured to him, in order to qualify the very strong measure of appropriating as an exchange for subsidy, so large a portion of his territories. And so far the argument prevails in favour of the Nabob's prerogatives; but the people of Oude may with great justice inquire, by what right the British government, for its own convenience, binds itself by treaties to maintain on the throne a wicked or imbecile prince, who, if left to himself, would be speedily rejected, as has been the practice in Hindostan from the earliest periods of history. The reserved territories of Oude occupy about 21,000 British square miles, and contain a population of, at the least, three millions of inhabitants; but the Nabob of Oude is too dependent on the British government to be regarded as one of the political states of India. On account of the defective system, the revenue derived from this extent of country is very inferior to what it might be made to produce under a more enlightened system of taxation; but the income of the Oude sovereigns is to be estimated rather negatively than positively, rather from the absence of expendi-

ture than from the magnitude of their receipts: for being relieved by the nature of their alliance with the British government from all external alarms, and having no funds or national debt, their expenses are merely fiscal and personal; and without diminishing the splendour of his court or the comfort of his style of living, the present Nabob might, with the slightest attention, annually lay aside (as was supposed to have been done by his father Saadet Ali) half a million sterling: but to what purpose? — *(Public MS. Documents, Marquis of Hastings, Major Baillie, Guthrie, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

Goggra River *(Gharghăra)*.—This river has its source in the Himalaya mountains, but the exact spot has never been ascertained. The principal branch before it issues from the hills, is named the Cali, and now forms the eastern boundary of the British district of Kumaoon, which it separates from the Gorkha territory of Duti. At Swargadwara (the gate of heaven) it unites with the Sarjou (Sareyu) or Deva river, after which it is named indifferently the Goggra, Sarjou, or Deva. This forms one of the longest contributary streams to the Ganges, which it joins in the province of Bahar. In the Hindoo mythological poems, this river is always mentioned by the name of the Sareyu, which in modern times it has almost lost. By the ancient Hindoos, its banks were esteemed of peculiar sanctity, and were much frequented by Viswamitra and several other powerful and choleric Hindoo saints. Major Rennell thinks it is the Agoramis of Arrian.

Goomty River *(Gomati, winding)*.—This river has its source among the Kumaoon hills, from whence it flows in a south easterly direction, nearly parallel with the Goggra, and after passing the cities of Lucknow and Juanpoor, falls into the Ganges below Benares. It is named the Goomty from its extremely winding course, which being a circumstance very common to rivers flowing through the Gangetic plain, there are many other rivers of a secondary class distinguished by the same appellation, particularly one which passes Comillah in the Tiperah district, and falls into the Megna at Daoudçaundy.

Lucknow *(Lakshmanavati)*.—This large city stands on the south side of the Goomty, which is navigable for boats of a common size at all seasons of the year, and falls into the Ganges between Benares and Ghazipoor. Lat. 26° 51′ N. long. 80° 50′ E. The streets where the lower classes reside are sunk ten or twelve feet below the surface, and are so narrow that two carts cannot pass, being likewise filthy in the extreme. The different palaces of the Nabob, the great mosques, and burying places, display considerable splendour, having gilt roofs and architecture loaded with ornaments. The Imaum Barry, built by Asoph ud Dowlah between 1780 and 1784, is reckoned one of the most superb edifices in India, after those erected by the Delhi emperors. It has a centre arched

room, 167 feet long by 52 broad, with an octagon room at each end, and a raised set of rooms or open arches in the rear of the centre, the whole length, with fountains and basins of water under each arch. In front is an arcaded verandah, forming a very fine oblong room, narrower than the centre room, with a pierced or open work and dwarf balustrade, near the spring of the ceiling. No wood is used in any part of the building, which is wholly composed of brick and mortar masonry. It was repaired in 1815 by the present Nabob, Ghazi ud Deen.

Among the other curiosities in this neighbourhood is Constantia, the residence of the late General Claude Martin, which is said to have cost him £150,000 sterling. To the house is annexed a very noble garden and extensive mangoe clump; but the country round is a barren sand and dead flat. On the general's decease, the furniture was sold, and the girandoles and mirrors now adorn the government house at Calcutta. In 1810, Saadet Ali, the reigning Nabob Vizier, addressed a letter to Lord Minto, expressing his desire to have an iron bridge erected across the river Goomty, in the neighbourhood of his palace, and requesting the assistance of a professional person to survey the river and to carry it into execution.

On the death of the Nabob Shuja ud Dowlah in 1775, his successor, Asoph ud Dowlah, removed the seat of government to this place from Fyzabad, the prior capital. The bankers and men of property accompanied the court; and Lucknow, in a very few years, became one of the largest and richest towns of Hindostan, while its predecessor decayed with a proportionate rapidity. In 1800, the population was roughly estimated at 300,000, but it probably has since diminished, on account of the waning splendour of the Nabob's court and consequent limited expenditure. Among other establishments the Nabob has a menagerie, in which variety or utility has not been so much attended to as the oddities of nature; the rhinoceros being the only remarkable animal in the collection. Near to the stables a very large breed of Gujerat bullocks is kept; the introduction of which among the peasants generally, would be of infinite advantage to a country, where the draught cattle are so small and weak, as in the province of Oude.

The body of the Nabob Asoph ud Dowlah lies interred in a religious sepulchre lighted by a vast number of wax tapers, and having the grave strewed with flowers and gilt paper. On one side is a censer with various perfumes, on the other his sword and waistband, and opposite to his head lie his turban, and a copy of the Koran. The grave is covered with rich bread of barley from Mecca, and verses from the Koran are chanted day and night. Lucknow is mentioned by Abul Fazel as a considerable town, and is supposed to stand on

the site of the renowned forest of Noimisha, where, in ancient times, Soota and his 60,000 Moonees (Hindoo saints) performed austere penitence, heard the Puranas read, and listened to incredible stories. The travelling distance by the nearest road from Calcutta, is about 650 miles, and from hence to where the Ganges joins the ocean, all is one vast plain. Travelling distance from Delhi 280; from Agra, 202; and from Benares, 189 miles.—*(Tennant, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

NOELGUNGE.—A town in the Oude territories, 15 miles W. S. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 47′ N. long. 80° 33′ E.

BARY *(Bari)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 30 miles N. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 15′ N. long. 80° 50′ E.

BYRAMGHAUT.—A town in the Oude territories, situated on the west side of the Goggra, 36 miles N. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 6′ N. long. 81° 21′ E.

NAWAUBGUNGE.—A town in the Oude territories, 38 miles N. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 6′ N. long. 81° 26′ E.

MOHAUN *(Mahan)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 16 miles N. from Lucknow. Lat 27° 5′ N. long. 80° 50′ E.

EMBEHOTTY.—A town in the Oude territories, 18 miles S. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 18′ N. long. 81° 3′ E.

HYDUGHUR.—A town in the Oude territories, 32 S. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 37′ N. long. 81° 17′ E.

MEAHGUNGE *(Miahganj)*.—This town was built by the late eunuch, Ali Almas Khan, and was the capital of his district. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 80° 32′ E. 23 miles S. W. from Lucknow.

ASSEWAN.—This place is about a mile from Meahgunge, and is more pleasantly situated, overlooking a small lake; it has however been deserted for the latter place, and is almost in ruins. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 86° 31′ E.

BENGERMOW.—This town is situated on a small river, is surrounded by clumps of mangoe trees, and has the appearance of having formerly been much more considerable. Lat. 26° 54′ N. long. 80° 7′ E. 44 miles W. from Lucknow.

SULTANGUNGE.—A town in the Oude territories, 45 miles W. N. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 59′ N. long. 80° 7′ E.

RAMGUNGE.—A town in the Oude territories, 27 miles S. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 38′ N. long. 80° 30′ E.

ANAM.—A town in the Oude territories, 34 miles S. W. from Lucknow. Lat 26° 34′ N. long. 80° 22′ E.

POORWAH *(Purva)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 29 miles S. S. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 30′ N. long. 80° 37′ E.

Doondeakera *(Dundyacara)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 48 miles S. by W. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 12′ N. long. 80° 36′ E.

Roy Bareilly.—A town in the Oude territories, situated on the north side of the Sye river, 46 miles S. S. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 14′ N. long. 81° 6′ E.

Oude.—This town stands on the south side of the Goggra river, 79 miles E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 48′ N. long. 82° 4′ E. And by Abul Fazel, in 1582, is described as follows: "Oude is one of the largest cities of Hindostan. In ancient times this city is said to have measured 148 coss (296 English miles) in length, and 36 coss (72 miles) in breadth. Upon sifting the earth which is round this city, small grains of gold are sometimes found in it. This town is esteemed one of the most sacred places of antiquity."

Pilgrims resort to this vicinity, where the remains of the ancient city of Oude, the capital of the Great Rama, are still to be seen; but whatever may have been its former magnificence, it now exhibits nothing but a shapeless heap of ruins. The modern town extends a considerable way along the banks of the Goggra, adjoining Fyzabad, and is tolerably well populated; but the interior is a mass of rubbish and jungle, among which are the reputed sites of temples dedicated to Rama, Seeta, Lakshman, and Hanumaun. The religious mendicants who perform the pilgrimage to Oude are chiefly of the Ramata sect, who walk round the temples and idols, bathe in the holy pools, and perform the customary ceremonies.

Hyatnagur.—A town in the Oude territories, 50 miles E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 81° 33′ E.

Fyzabad *(a beautiful residence)*.—The capital of the Oude dominions during the reign of Shuja ud Dowlah, but abandoned for Lucknow in 1775 by his son and successor, Asoph ud Dowlah; situated on the south side of the Goggra river, 78 miles E. from Lucknow. This city is still of considerable extent, and contains a numerous population, chiefly of the lower classes; the great men, bankers, money changers, and merchants, having migrated with the court to Lucknow. The remains of a fortress, and of Shuja ud Dowlah's palace are still to be seen.

Latterly Fyzabad has been chiefly remarkable as the residence of the celebrated Bhow Begum, the widow of Shuja ud Dowlah, and mother of Asoph ud Dowlah, but not as is generally supposed of the late Nabob Saadet Ali. The original intention of this lady, announced to the Marquis Wellesley in the most solemn manner, was to transfer the whole of her property, real and personal, to the British government, and to constitute that power sole heir and executor at her death. The just right of the Begum to transfer, and of the British govern-

ment to accept her highnesses legacy, with reference to her personal property, could not be doubted, but the government immediately rejected a proposal so honourable and advantageous to itself, and recommended an arrangement by which, after suitably providing for her own interment, and for her relations and dependants, the remainder of her vast property should devolve to her grandson, Ghazi ud Deen, the present Nabob of Oude. In 1813, an attempt was made to induce the Begum to place in the immediate charge of the British government a portion of her wealth adequate to the fulfilment of her contemplated bequests, but without success.

The Bhow Begum departed this life on the 28th of December, 1815, after an illness of a few days, aged 84, and on the 19th of February, 1816, Mr. Strachey (then resident at Lucknow,) proceeded to Fyzabad to carry into effect the provisions of her will. The amount of her treasure (exaggerated by the natives to twenty crores and thirty-five lacks), according to the statements furnished by Dareb Ali Khan, who, in concert with Captain Robertson commanding the guard at Fyzabad, had examined the coffers, was 8,948,916 rupees (£1,038,074 sterling), exclusive of jewels, shawl goods, wearing apparel, cattle, &c. &c. &c. The last mentioned description of property, together with the jaghires of the late Begum, which even under her mismanagement yielded eight lacks of rupees per annum (£92,800), was made over to the Nabob of Oude, whose son repaired to Fyzabad to take charge of it. The aggregate amount of the pensions for which the British government had become responsible, required a capital of 5,011,470 rupees, to which sum three lacks, payable to Dareb Ali Khan, for the expense of the mausoleum, and one lack for donations to holy shrines, were to be added. Other items swelled the total capital received by the British government for the purpose of executing the provisions of the Begum's will to 6,250,748 rupees. Out of this, three lacks were to be paid for the erection of a mausoleum, and one lack of offerings at the holy shrines of Kerbela and Nujuff. The remainder, therefore, left in the hands of the British government to cover the pensions, &c. (about 350,000 rupees per annum,) to be paid to the Begum's relations and dependants through Dareb Ali Khan, amounted to 5,850,748 rupees (£678,606).

After all these deductions from the Begum's property, the Nabob's residue amounted to 2,697,168 rupees in money, besides jewels and other valuables of which no estimate was made, and his excellency, as above-mentioned, succeeded to an estate of eight lacks of rupees per annum. Subsequently a fraudulent attempt was made to pass off a surreptitious will, purporting to be that of the late Begum, but the forgery was detected, and measures taken to discover and punish the contrivers of it.—*(Public MS. Documents, Major Baillie, &c &c.)*

JUGDEESPOOR.—A town in the Oude territories, 53 miles S. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 28′ N. long. 81° 33′ E.

SHAHZADPOOR.—A town in the Oude territories, 38 miles S. E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 26° 24′ N. long. 82° 27′ E.

TAUNDA.—This town is situated on the south side of the Goggra river, 35 miles S. E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 26° 33′ N. long. 82° 32′ E. Cloths of a quality similar to Bengal cossaes, and having the same name, are fabricated in the neighbourhood of Taunda.

ACBERPOOR *(Acbarpura)*.—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, 36 miles S. E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 26° 26′ N. long. 82° 25′ E.

JAYES.—A town in the Oude territories, 58 miles S. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 26° 15′ N. long. 81° 28′ E.

ARMEATIE.—A town in the Nabob of Oude's territories, 37 miles N. E. from Manicpoor. Lat. 26° 8′ N. long. 81° 46′ E.

BARAITCHE *(Bharech)*.—A district in the province of Oude, extending along the north side of the Goggra river, and separated from the Nepaulese dominions by a lofty range of hills. A section of this division was ceded to the British government in 1800, but the greater proportion still remains within the reserved territories of the Nabob Vizier. The northern parts towards the hills are covered with primeval forests, never visited by the axe; but towards the Goggra the country is open, fertile, and tolerably well cultivated. The Goggra and Rapty are the principal rivers; the chief towns are Baraitche and Bulrampoor. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Berayitch, containing 11 mahals, measurement 1,823,435 begahs, revenue 24,120,525 dams, seyurghal 466,482. This circar furnishes 1170 cavalry, and 14,300 infantry."

BARAITCHE.—Situated 64 miles N. E. from Lucknow, in lat. 27° 33′ N. long. 81° 30′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, (and we have nothing more recent) it is described as follows: "Baraitche is a large city delightfully situated on the river Sy. Sultan Massaood and Rejeb Sillar are both buried here, and held in great veneration."

TOOLSEEPOOR *(Tulasipura)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 50 miles N. by E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 27° 29′ N. long. 82° 17′ E.

GOONDA.—A town in the Oude territories, 28 miles N. by E. from Fyzabad. Lat. 27° 9′ N. long. 81° 52′ E.

BULRAMPOOR.—A town in the Oude territories, 42 miles N. from Fyzabad. Lat. 27° 24′ N. long. 82° 4′ E.

MULLAHPOOR. *(Mulapur)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 61 miles N. N. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 41′ N. long. 81° 11′ E.

TAHMOOR.—A town in the Oude territories, 60 miles N. by E. from Lucknow. Lat 27° 42′ N. long. 81° 4′ E.

NAHANPARA.—A town in the Oude territories, 78 miles N. E. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 50′ N. long. 81° 27′ E.

BHOJIPOOR. A town in the Oude territories, 102 miles N. from the city of Lucknow. Lat. 28° 20′ N. long. 80° 53′ E.

BURTAPOOR *(Bharatpur)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 100 miles N. by E. from Lucknow. Lat. 28° 15′ N. long. 81° 1′ E.

SEMANAGUR.—A town in the Oude territories, 41 miles north from Khyrabad. Lat. 28° 4′ N. long. 80° 40′ E.

KHYRABAD.—A district in the north division of the Oude province, within the Nabob's territories, and situated principally between the 27th and 28th degrees of north lat. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Khyrabad, containing 22 mahals, measurement 1,987,700 begahs, revenue 43,644,381 dams, seyurghal 1,713,342 dams. This circar furnishes 1160 cavalry and 27,800 infantry."

Khyrabad is a fertile district, and well supplied with water from many streams flowing south-west from the mountains, but the extent and nature of the cultivation is very inferior to the adjacent districts under the British government. The principal crops are barley, wheat, tobacco, and small peas. The soil is of a light sandy nature, easily pulverized, and during the dry season ascends with the wind in clouds of dust, yet in the cold season the crops are frequently injured by the frost. There are some fields of sugar cane, but this species of cultivation, which requires a steady and just political government to ensure to the peasant the fruits of his labour, is but very ill conducted. The principal rivers are the Ganges, Goomty, and Goggra; the chief towns Khyrabad, Shahabad, and Narangabad.—*(Tennant, Abul Fazel, &c.)*

KHYRABAD.—The capital and denominator of the above district, is situated in lat. 27° 30′ N. long. 80° 40′ E. 45 miles N. by W. from Lucknow.

SUNDEELA.—A town in the Oude territories, 31 miles N. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 4′ N. long. 80° 27′ E.

BISWAH *(Viswa)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 43 miles N. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 28′ N. long. 80° 6′ E.

MASWEY.—A town in the Oude territories, 35 N. by W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 18′ N. long. 80° 26′ E.

MUTCHERHUTTAH *(Matsyahata, the fish market)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 41 miles N. by W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 24′ N. long. 80° 36′ E.

MAHOMDY *(Mahomedi)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 58 miles S. E. from Bareily. Lat. 27° 58′ N. long. 80° 5′ E.

NARANGABAD *(Naringa Abad)*.—A town in the Oude territories, 72 miles N. W. from Khyrabad. Lat. 27° 46′ N. long. 80° 18′ E.

PEYAUNEY.—A town in the Oude territories, 68 miles N. N. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 38′ N. long. 80° 10′ E.

SHAHABAD.—A town in the Oude territories, 30 miles N. W. from Furruckabad. Lat. 27° 40′ N. long. 79° 50′ E.

BELGRAM *(Balagrama).*—This town, though now reduced, is of some antiquity, being described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, as very healthy and famous for producing men with melodious voices. It is still distinguished by a ruinous fort and moat. The decayed buildings appear to have been in the best style of Mogul architecture; but the present inhabitants, few in number, dwell in small structures either of mud or timber.—*(Abul Fazel, Tennant, &c.)*

MULAYNE.—A large village in the Oude territories, 50 miles N. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 3′ N. long. 80° 50′ E. The inhabitants are numerous, but the place is mean and irregular, consisting almost entirely of small mud huts. The surrounding country is tolerably well cultivated.

SANDY *(Sandi).*—A town belonging to the Nabob of Oude, in the district of Khyrabad, 65 miles N. W. from Lucknow. Lat. 27° 19′ N. long. 79° 52′ E. In recent times the inhabitants of the pergunnah attached to Sandee have been distinguished for their turbulent and predatory habits, which have given infinite trouble to the contiguous British authorities.

THE DISTRICT OF GORUCPOOR *(Gorakhpur).*

This district is situated in the province of Oude, about the 27th degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the hills and forests of Nepaul; on the south by the course of the Goggra river; to the east it has the district of Sarun; and on the west the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Gorucpoor, containing 24 mahals; measurement 244,283 begahs; revenue 11,926,790 dams; seyurghal 51,235. This Circar furnishes 1,010 cavalry, and 22,000 infantry."

This territory is said to have been in a flourishing condition during the long reign of the Emperor Acber, and to have continued so under the Nabobs of Oude, until the defeat of Shuja ud Dowlah at Buxar, after which, owing to the efforts of the Rajas and zemindars to render themselves independent, much confusion ensued, and a consequent suspension of cultivation. The first and second ranges of hills extend in a westerly direction from the district, so that the hot winds are scarcely experienced in the northern parts. Easterly winds prevail generally throughout the whole of the year, and in the hot season the nights and mornings are cool and pleasant. The climate, however, is not generally favourable to health, on account of the extent of jungle and stagnate water, over which the easterly wind must make its approach. Instances may be found of many other districts subject to the British government, in which the cultivated land bears but a small proportion to the uncultivated, but in none to so great a magnitude

as in Gorucpoor. Indeed, in 1814, the superintendant of the police reported, that the whole tract north of the capital was waste and almost uninhabited, and that in consequence the existence of a police was merely nominal, some of the thannahs (stations) comprehending 1,500 square miles. These forests in ancient times have often been the refuge of governors, princes, and pretenders, who had raised unsuccessfully the standard of rebellion, and in modern times have been abandoned to the wild elephants and other unclaimed animals. The former, although of an inferior quality, are caught by the natives, but not in whole herds as is practised in Silhet and Tiperah. In general they are either seized singly in pits, or decoyed by the intervention of female elephants, in both of which processes many are killed and still more maimed.

At some seasons of the year the second range of hills is visible from the town of Gorucpoor under an angle of forty degrees. The general height of this range above the plains of Gorucpoor is 4,000 feet, and that of the first range 2,100 feet. At the base of this last is the Terriani, or low country, intersected by many streams, which issue from the hills, and afterwards fall into the Rapty, a river of secondary magnitude. The great forest which commences near the capital, extends through this low tract as far as the first range of hills. It varies considerably in breadth, and in some places is so open as to admit with ease the passage of elephants, while in others it is scarcely to be penetrated by a human creature. In this forest, and the jungle connected with it, game of all description abounds. Among the quadrupeds, elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, bears, and buffaloes, may be enumerated; and among the winged, the beautiful and high-flavoured florican, (the otis houbara of Linnæus). The Terriani fever, at all times dangerous, is more particularly so in the months of May and June, and usually proceeds to its termination, good or bad, with great rapidity. By the natives it is ascribed to the water, but it probably results from a combination of noxious qualities in the air, water, and soil.

It is said that prior to the battle of Buxar, Gorucpoor realized a revenue of 28 lacks of rupees, and that at least two lacks more were raised by the Aumils for their own private emolument; but this report does not appear to rest on any good authority. The district came into the possession of the British in 1801, during the government of the Marquis Wellesley, when it was ceded by the Nabob of Oude in commutation of subsidy.

The jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, in 1808-9 was	1,585,885
Ditto, 1809	1,656,050
Ditto, 1810	1,671,405
Ditto, 1811	1,684,909
Ditto, 1812	1,716,650
Ditto, 1813	1,775,377

In 1815, during the war with Nepaul, with the view of increasing the population, arrangements were made for settling in this district a class of persons named Tharoos, and such other inhabitants of the hills as might seek an asylum within the British territories. Early in that year one of the chief Tharoos reported to the collector that about 3,000 of his tribe were assembled in a mangoe grove, at Cumareeah, a village situated in the Setassee jungles, belonging to the Ranny of Gudjepoor, and that more were expected. In deliberating on this measure it was thought, that the aggregation of the Tharoos into communities would be more agreeable to them, than being scattered in small numbers among strangers, and that as their habits were understood to be industrious and pacific, no motive for their dispersion, or for wishing them to merge into the mass of the surrounding population appeared to exist. On the contrary, it was thought probable, that the preservation of their distinct and original habits, which enabled them to resist the pestiferous atmosphere of the jungles, might be turned to good account in some future hostile emergency.

It was determined therefore to assign them tracts of waste land, of which there was abundance, some retaining traces of former cultivation; but the Tharoos objected to such as were too near the hills, where they would be under continual apprehensions of an attack from the Gorkhas, their old masters. The spot at last selected was the pergunnah of Setassee Gudjepoor, which, although of an excellent soil, was covered with jungle, and wholly uncultivated. This tract is situated between two rivers, the Rohem and the Powaya; the first flowing on the east side, and the latter on the western. The extent of land from east to west is three coss, and from north to south five coss, and situated due north of Gorucpoor, about half way to the hills; and the agents of the Ranny of Gudjepoor declared their willingness to give up the above described tract of waste land. In consequence of the delays attendant on every similar arrangement, great sickness, and heavy rains, many of the Tharoos, who had been collected, dispersed; but prior to the 19th of July, 1816, above 2,000 Tharoos had erected huts, and commenced cultivation in the Setassee jungles, money having been advanced them by the government to procure seed and cattle, and a certain quantity of rice supplied for their immediate subsistence. After the conclusion of the Pindarry wars, a colony of a more questionable character was established, a celebrated leader of that banditti named Kurreem Khan, his nephew and adopted son, with some of their followers, having had lands assigned them in Gorucpoor, equivalent to a revenue of 1,000 rupees per month.

Under these circumstances and on account of its local contiguity to two independent states (Oude and Nepaul) the Gorucpoor district appears too extensive for the maintenance of an efficient police. In 1814, most of the desperate robberies perpetrated in Gorucpoor, were ascribed to a tribe of people named Seeal

Murwahs, or Geedier Maurs, who are robbers by profession, resembling in every respect the Buddicks of the Agra province. These depredators have no fixed habitations, but mostly frequent the Oude dominions, as best adapted for their operations. In 1815, public treasure to the amount of 20,000 rupees, was carried off by a large body of Dacoits, who effected their escape into the territories of his excellency the Nabob Vizier. On this occasion 4 of the Burkindauzes escorting the treasure were killed, and 15 wounded.—*(J. Ahmuty, J. W. Grant, Public Journals, Capt. Stoneham, Blunt, &c. &c.)*

GORUCPOOR.—This town stands on the east side of the Rapty, 145 miles N. W. from Patna. Lat. 26° 46′ N. long. 83° 19′ E.

BULLUAH.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 42 miles S. E. from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 26° 45′ N. long. 83° 53′ E.

MUTGHUR *(Mutighar)*.—A town in the Gorucpoor, district 16 miles west from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 26° 45′ N. long. 83° 4′ E.

BUCKRAH.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, situated on the banks of the Buckrah Jeel, named also the Lakshmisar lake, the theme of an indecent and popular Hindostany song. Lat. 23 miles N. W. from Gorucpoor. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 85° 10′ E.

BUSTEE *(Basti, a dwelling)*.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 40 miles W. from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 26° 48′ N. long. 82° 41′ E.

BANSY *(Vansi)*.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 40 miles N. E. from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 29° 9′ N. long. 82° 52′ E.

BUTOOL *(Butaul)*.—This small subdivision of the Oude province is within the limits of the British territories, although the village of Butool, from whence its name originates, belongs to the Nepaulese. In 1802, a considerable portion of the lands belonged to the Palpah Raja, and were tolerably well cultivated, principally by emigrants from the Oude territories; but on the cession of Gorucpoor to the British, the cause of migration having ceased to operate, many returned to the south. At that period there were many merchants in the town of Butool from Benares and also from the northern countries of Nepaul, Bootan, and Tibet. These last brought for sale gold, brass, iron, copper, bees-wax, and other productions of the north; and took in return cotton cloths, curwahs, broad cloth, and other commodities. The pass of Butool is most inconveniently situated for trade, yet became a considerable mart owing to the shutting of the other passes by the Gorkhas. In 1812, the value of Butool and Sheoraj was assumed at 40,000 rupees per annum, for which the settlement had been made by Prithi Pal, the former Raja of Palpa, shortly after possession had been obtained of them from the Nabob of Oude.

The village of Butool, denominated Khas Butool, is situated at the base of

the hills, on the west bank of the Tenavy. Lat. 27° 37′ N. long. 83° 31′ E. 64 miles *N.* from the town of Gorucpoor. It stands on the plain, and is the only place, so situated, that was left to the Gorkhas, west of the Gunduck, by the treaty of 1815. In reality, it is a very undesirable possession, as it stands in a recess of the mountains, and is so dreadfully unhealthy, that no one inhabits it during the rainy season. Besides this, it was clearly established by inquiry that the town of Butool had never belonged to the Nabob of Oude, of course the British who succeeded to the rights of that province had no claim to its possession. The Butool Raja formerly possessed extensive dominions among the hills, where he was known as Raja of Palpa, but of these he was stripped by the predominance of the Gorkhas.—*(J. Ahmuty, Routledge, &c. &c. &c.)*

Soopoor.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 62 miles N. N. E. from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 27° 20′ N. long. 84° 3′ E.

Lotun.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 35 miles north from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 27° 14′ N. long. 83° 13′ E.

Sarrowly.—A town in the Gorucpoor district, 51 miles N. W. from the town of Gorucpoor. Lat. 27° 18′ N. long. 82° 47′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF AGRA.

THIS large geographical subdivision of Hindostan Proper, is situated principally between the 25th and 28th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the province of Delhi, on the south by that of Malwah; to the east are the provinces of Oude and Allahabad, and on the west that of Ajmeer. In length it may be estimated at 250 miles by 180, the average breadth. In the institutes of Acber, compiled by Abul Fazel, A. D. 1582, this province is described as follows:

"The soubah of Agra is situated in the second climate. In length, from Ghatimpoor (Gautumpoor), which confines it on the side of Allahabad, to Pulwall, the boundary towards Delhi, it measures 175 coss; its breadth is from Kanoje to Chandree in Malwah. This soubah contains 13 districts, viz. 1, Agra; 2, Calpee; 3, Kanoje; 4, Cowl; 5, Gualior; 6, Irej; 7, Sauwan; 8, Narwar; 9, Mundlayer; 10, Alvar; 11, Tejareh; 12, Narnoul; 13, Sehar. These districts are subdivided into 203 pergunnahs. The amount of the revenue is 16,156,257 rupees. It furnishes 50,600 cavalry; 477,570 infantry; and 221 elephants."

The principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following:

1. Agra district.
2. The Doab.
3. The district of Etaweh.
4. The Furruckabad district.
5. Calpee, Gohud, and Gualior.
6. The Bhurtpoor territories.
7. Alvar or Machery.
8. The Alighur district.

The surface of this province to the north-east of the Jumna is in general flat and open, and rather bare of trees, but to the south of the Chumbul, and also towards the western frontier, it becomes more hilly and jungly. The climate for the greater part of the year is temperate, and during the winter months actually cold; but while the hot winds prevail, like other central regions of Hindostan, the heat is intense, and the climate unhealthy, especially in the hilly quarter; but fortunately their continuance is not of long duration. The chief rivers of the province are the Jumna, the Chumbul, and the Ganges, besides many smaller streams such as the Sinde and Koharry; but upon the whole the country is indifferently supplied with water; and to the north of the Chumbul, and on the western frontier, during the dry season, except in the immediate

vicinity of the large rivers which flow with a perpetual current, water for agricultural purposes is procured from wells. A great proportion of the cultivation is consequently restricted to such crops, as do not, like rice, require a redundant supply of moisture. Various streams have their sources in the north western hills, and during the rains flow with a considerable volume, but even then they do not reach the Jumna, Chumbul, or any other large depot of water, being, during their progress, either absorbed by the thirsty soil, or abstracted by the husbandman for the purposes of agriculture. The soil is particularly adapted for the cultivation of indigo, cotton, and sugar, which might be raised in any quantity, and the production of which is in fact annually increasing in the portions of the province under the immediate jurisdiction of the British government. In those subject to native chiefs, all processes of agriculture are still in a very backward state. The Agra province contains no remarkable or peculiar mineral productions, and the animals are such as are usually found in other parts of Hindostan; but the horses are reckoned much superior to any produced further east, with the exception of those bred in the Company's stud in Tirhoot. While describing the local subdivisions into which the country is distributed, other particulars of this nature will be noticed.

The principal article manufactured in this province is coarse cotton cloth, but the quantity exported is not great. The Bengal and Bahar provinces receive annually an importation of cotton, from the country south of the Chumbul, by the route of Calpee; but a considerable portion of it is the growth of Malwah and the Maharattas territories to the south-east of Agra. The Doab, or territory included between the Ganges and the Jumna, which may be termed the garden of the province, exports indigo, sugar, and cotton. The country to the north-west of Agra, under the Macherry Raja of Alvar, and other native chiefs, being scantily supplied with water, is of a very inferior quality, and comparatively unproductive. Upon the whole, the province is but thinly populated when compared with Bengal, Tanjore, and the more flourishing of the British provinces, and does not probably in all its dimensions contain more than six millions of inhabitants, of which the Doab districts under British jurisdiction comprehend a considerable proportion. At present this province is partitioned nearly in the following manner:

The north-western and western districts, to the north of the Chumbul, are possessed by the Rajas of Macherry and Bhurtpoor, and other native chiefs, in alliance with and under the protection, from external invasion, of the British government. These petty states form a boundary towards the dominions of the Ajmeer Rajpoots, and of the Malwah Maharattas. All the province to the east of the Jumna, with a district round the city of Agra, is possessed by the British

government, which has in that city instituted a regular civil establishment for the administration of justice, and collection of the revenue. The country to the south of the Chumbul, comprehending Gualior, Gohud, Narwar, &c. with the exception of the town and district of Culpee, is either in the possession of or tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia, who, by the arrangements of 1803, was shut out from Hindostan, north of the Chumbul.

The chief towns in the Agra province besides its capital, are Alvar (or Aloor) the capital of the Macherry Raja; Bhurtpoor the capital of the Jauts; Deeg, another strong Jaut fortress; Mathura, Kanoje, Etaweh, Gualior, Gohud, Calpee, Narwar, and Furruckabad. The natives are in general a handsome robust race of men, and consist of a mixture of Hindoos and Mahommedans, few of the Seiks having yet come so far south. A considerable number of the cultivators to the west of the Jumna are Jauts, and the country of the Macherry Rajas contains many Mewaties, long noted for their thievish propensities. The Hindoo religion is still the predominant, although the country has been permanently subject since the 13th century to the Mahommedans. The language of the common intercourse is the Hindostany, but the Persian is used for public and official documents, and also in conversation among the higher classes of Mahommedans. The Bruj dialect is spoken round the city of Agra, and extends to the Vindhya mountains. In the words of the Lord's prayer in this language, 28 correspond with those occurring in the Bengalese or Hindostany specimens, besides 2 or 3 Sanscrit words of frequent recurrence in the Bengalese. The ancient language of Kanoje, the capital of Upper Hindostan at the period of the first Mahommedan invasion, is thought by Mr. Colebrooke to form the basis of the modern Hindostany.

In the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity, this province must have formed a very important division of Hindostan, as it contained Kanoje, Mathura, and Bindrabund, the seats of their most famous empires, and still among the most venerated places of pilgrimage. The city of Agra is also supposed to have been the birth place of the Avatar, or incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Parasu Rama, whose conquests extended to, and included Ceylon. After the Mahommedan invasion it followed the fate of Delhi, and during the reign of Acber, as containing the metropolis, was the leading province of the empire. Subsequent to the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, it was alternately possessed and ravaged by the Jauts, Maharattas, and different commanders deputed from Delhi to restore the imperial authority. One of the latter, Nudjiff Khan, governed the provinces north of the Chumbul from 1777, until his death, independent of all controul from the Delhi sovereign.—*(Abul Fazel, Scott, Colebrooke, Missionaries, Wilford, &c.)*

CHUMBUL RIVER.—This river has its source in the province of Malwah, 40 miles S. W. from the city of Oujein, and 50 north of the Nerbuddah. Its course is afterwards for a considerable space nearly due north, until it passes the town of Kotah, after which it turns more to the east, and at last, after having been augmented by many streams, falls into the Jumna 25 miles below Etaweh. The length of its course, windings included, may be estimated at 500 miles. The breadth of its channel at the ford of Kyteree, near Dhoolpoor, is three quarters of a mile. Here the southern bank is bold and lofty, and in the rainy season, when the channel is full, the prospect of such a body of water, bounded by hills of various shapes, presents a striking contrast to the vast plain between the Ganges and the Jumna.

This river is often named the Sumbul, and is supposed by Major Rennel to be the Sambus of Arrian. It now forms the boundary which separates the British territories in Hindostan Proper, from those of Dowlet Row Sindia to the south. —*(Hunter, Sir John Malcolm, Rennell, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF AGRA.

The modern district of Agra adjoins the Delhi division, a short distance north of Kosee, and extends along the bank of the Jumna to its junction with the Chumbul. On the west it is bounded by the pergunnahs of Deeg, the Bhurtpoor territories, and the pergunnahs of Dholpoor, Barree and Rajakera. That portion situated between the Chumbul and the Jumna is a table land, elevated above the beds of both rivers about 60 feet, and composed of a light soil. In many parts, during the dry season, the tanks, streams, and rivulets are without water, which for agricultural and domestic purposes must be procured from wells. Cultivation in this district, when compared with its condition in the Company's old provinces, has made but little progress. The waste lands are very extensive, and a portion of them might, without injustice, be set aside for the maintenance of watchmen, or of any other public measure. This backward state of agriculture is, however, in a great measure to be ascribed to its locality and the peculiar political relations in which it is circumstanced; the contiguity of independent states, separated in many parts from the British territories by an imaginary boundary, and inhabited by tribes long noted for their predatory habits, such as the Mewaties and Buddicks, who after committing crimes in the limits of Agra and other British districts, find a secure asylum for their persons and plunder in the adjacent native states, or among the defiles and ravines which intersect the southern portion of this division.

The jurisdiction of Chatá contains 175 villages, and is bounded by that of Delhi, by the dominions of the Nabob Ahmed Buksh Khan, and by Bhurtpoor.

The inhabitants of this tract have always been, from time immemorial, most notorious robbers, and it is only within these few years that their roads could be passed with any degree of safety. This predatory disposition, in addition to the facilities afforded by its frontier position, and much jungle between the villages, requires a more than ordinary share of vigilance and vigour on the part of the magistrate, to retain the tract in tolerable subordination. Kosee is a place of consequence, wealth, and commercial importance. Nundgaow and Bursana are places of considerable resort, owing to the opinion which the Hindoos entertain of their sanctity; but the inhabitants of the first, and of Muchhoe, have long had an evil reputation, and the latter being situated on the banks of the Jumna, its natives have fallen under the suspicion of exercising their ingenuity and activity, in transferring the property of their neighbours in the Alighur division to their own respective dwellings.

Sonk is a town of considerable size, and immediately on the frontier of the district; Hurbola is situated on the high road to Mathura. Between Secundra (near Agra) and Gaowghaut the country is barren, with much jungle, affording no protection to travellers, but extremely well adapted for the concealment of thieves. Oll is immediately on the Bhurtpoor frontier, and much exposed. The neighbourhood of Jet, lying between Bindrabund and Choumaher, is famous for the bad character of its inhabitants, who too frequently avail themselves of the conveniences afforded by the neighbouring ravines and jungles. The Hindoo sanctuaries of Mathura and Bindrabund are two populous towns, where for security, and to promote an improved system of police, gates have been erected at the principal entrances, and at the heads of the streets and alleys. Prior to 1812, an attempt was made to induce the zemindars to retain a number of watchmen in proportion to the magnitude of their different villages, but the burthen being found by experience greater than their resources could bear, the establishment was ultimately abandoned. In the section of the police division contiguous to the lands of Raja Keeruth Singh, a strong police is required, and ought to be maintained, to preserve tranquillity; but in 1812, the only police officer entertained was a Belahur, whose duty it was to report to the head of the police station the occurrences of his village, and even this functionary complained that his wages were not paid with due punctuality.

The prevailing crime in the Agra district is that of robbery on the high way; and the connivance of the zemindars with the robbers, although difficult of direct proof, is an article of universal belief. The presumption is greatly strengthened when the condition of the country, prior to its coming under the British government, is considered. At that period they openly sheltered thieves and shared their plunder; and as the practice avowedly continues in the immediate neigh-

bourhood, the probability almost amounts to a certainty, that the zemindars are acquainted with the character and mode of life of every individual in their villages. The land revenue yielded by this district in 1804, did not exceed 8,500,000, although by Sindia's ministers it had been estimated at 13 lacks. It was then held by Colonel Hessing, the commandant of Agra as jaidad. In 1813, the amount of the revenue yielded was 1,425,238 rupees. In that and the succeeding year this district experienced great distress from famine, many died of hunger, and others were glad to sell their women and children for a few rupees, and even for a single meal. In fact such was the distress, that in July, 1813, one half of the inhabitants were supposed to have migrated elsewhere in search of employment and food. When the rains of 1814 set in, advances were made to the cultivators, and many were induced to return; but in consequence of the great mortality among the cattle, many were obliged to have recourse to the hoe. Unfortunately the rains again proved partial and insufficient, the crops again failed, much misery was experienced by the peasantry, while the revenue balances rapidly accumulated. Notwithstanding this extreme distress, no violent affray occurred in the Agra district during 1815, at the beginning of which year there was no arrear of business on the judges file, suits having been disposed of within three months from the date of their institution. Adverting to the expanded nature of the frontier, and the limited existence of crime, the Agra district might then be considered as entitled to the first place in the scale of comparative efficiency within the Bareily division, a condition greatly ascribable to the exertions of Mr. Turner the magistrate. The average number of prisoners under confinement throughout the year 1813-14 was 853.—*(R. Turner, Public MS. Documents, Metcalfe, &c. &c.)*

AGRA.—This city stands on the south west side of the Jumna, about 137 miles travelling distance from Delhi. Lat. 27° 11′ N. long. 77° 53′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Agra is a large city, the air of which is esteemed very healthy. The river Jumna runs through it for five coss. The Emperor Acber founded here a most magnificent city. In former times Agra was a village dependent on Biana and the district then attached to it. Circar Agra contains 33 mahals; measurement 9,107,622 begahs; revenue 191,719,265 dams; seyurghal 14,566,818 dams. This circar furnishes 11,560 cavalry, and 100,800 infantry."

The houses of Agra consist of several stories, like those of Benares, and the streets are so narrow as scarcely to admit a palanquin; but much the greater part of this once flourishing city is now a heap of ruins, and almost uninhabited. Six miles to the north of Agra is the mausoleum of Acber at Secundra. From the summit of the minaret in front of it, a spectator's eye may range over a great

circuit of country, not less than 30 miles in a direct line. The whole of this space is flat, and filled with the ruins of ancient grandeur; at a distance, the river Jumna is seen, and the glittering towers of Agra. In the month of June, the river Jumna at Agra is half a mile broad, and it is not fordable here at any season. The city rises from its banks extending in a vast semicircle, and the fortress, in which is included the imperial palace, is of great extent. In 1813, to promote objects of police, gates were erected at the different entrances, and at the heads of the streets and alleys.

The fort of Agra, or Acberabad, is of a very large size, and strongly built of a kind of red stone of the hardness and colour of jasper, brought from the quarries of Futtehpoor. It has a ditch of great depth and a double rampart: the inner one being of an enormous height, with bastions at regular distances.

The extensive ruins which surround Agra, added to the celebrity of its name, probably gave rise to the exaggerated idea entertained of its present magnitude and population; the portion of the town, however, which is inhabited, is comprehended within a very small compass. It does not appear that any enumeration of the inhabitants has ever been made, but if the amount of town duties on grain imported for their consumption, compared with Furruckabad and Bareily, may be taken as any criterion, the inference would be, that Agra is the least populous of the three. In 1813, these duties for Agra were 16,251 rupees; for Furruckabad, 22,000 rupees; and for Bareily, 22,101 rupees. Upon the whole, this city may be considered inferior in population to Bareily; and the population of Mathura and Bindrabund in the Agra district are exceeded by those of Pillibeet and Shahjehanpoor, in that of Bareily. The present number of inhabitants is probably within 60,000; but this population may eventually be expected to increase, from the facility Agra affords to the commerce of the west of Hindostan, which is already great, as will appear from the following statement of the amount paid into the treasury on account of duties received at the custom-house:

In 1812-13	673,006
1813-14	922,157

In 1818, the increase of commerce in consequence of the tranquillization of Rajpootana was such, that the customs of Agra exceeded those of the preceding year by 130,000 rupees, and they have since continued progressively on the increase.

This city was greatly enlarged and embellished by the Emperor Acber, who made it his capital, and it had also the honour of being the birth-place of Abul Fazel, his prime minister. In 1813, a pension of 50 rupees per month was granted by the British government to Mustapha Khan, a resident here, and the

reputed lineal descendant of that meritorious vizier. During the prevalence of the Gallo-Maharatta power in Hindostan, the pension to this individual had been reduced to the miserable pittance of 15 rupees per annum.

The most remarkable edifice in modern Agra is the Tauje Mahal, erected by the Emperor Shah Jehan, for the celebrated Noor Jehan Begum. It is situated on the southern banks of the Jumna, about 3 miles from the fort of Agra, and is built entirely of white marble. It is enclosed within a space of 300 yards, extending along the river, and is nearly 190 yards square. The dome rises from the centre, and is about 70 feet in diameter. The character of the British government in India being concerned in preventing injury or dilapidation to this celebrated building, in 1809 such repairs were ordered as time or accident might render necessary; and a committee, consisting of the magistrate, collector, and commanding officer, appointed to superintend them. Measures were also adopted for putting the funds assigned for the support of the building under a proper arrangement, and up to 1814, one lack of rupees had been expended in the repairs of the Tauje Mahal, and the Emperor Acber's mausoleum at Secundra; but in India, owing to the nature of the climate, the luxuriant vegetation, and other causes, undertakings of this sort may be described as never ending, still beginning. The tomb of Kundehree Begum (another of Shah Jehan's wives) has not been so fortunate, for while that of her rival has been repaired and adorned at a vast expense, the other is polluted by the presence of a court of justice, which is held there.

Agra, with the rest of the province, fell under the sway of Madhajee Sindia, and continued in the possession of the Maharattas until 1803, when it surrendered to the British army under Lord Lake. Among the artillery captured here was one enormous piece, named the great gun of Agra, of which the following are the dimensions: calibre of the gun 23 inches, metal at the muzzle 11½ inches; length 14 feet 2 inches; length of the bore 8 feet 8 inches; length of the chamber 4 feet 4 inches; diameter of ditto 10 inches; weight of the gun 96,600 pounds; weight of the ball of cast iron, 1500 pounds. Lord Lake endeavoured to float it down as a trophy to Calcutta, with the view of having it afterwards sent to England, but it broke through the frame of the raft and sunk into the sands of the river, where it probably still remains. It is not known by whom it was fabricated. Agra was soon after its capture made the head quarters of a civil establishment for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, subordinate to the Bareily court of circuit. A strong garrison is maintained in the fort and military cantonments; from the vicinity of which considerable inconvenience has been experienced, by vagrants and offenders seeking refuge there, beyond the jurisdiction of the magistrate or regular police. The

efficiency of the latter is also impeded by the local position of Agra in the vicinity of independent native powers, being only 16 miles distant from the Raja of Bhurtpoor's territories, and the same from the dominions of the Rana of Gohud. The interior of the fortifications has recently been much improved both as to arrangement and cleanliness, and some of the bomb proofs and arcades cleared of the native huts by which they were encumbered, and rebuilt or repaired, the stone-masons of Agra being remarkably good workmen. The higher parts of the fort are from 50 to 60 feet above the level of the river, and as it is filled with buildings of brick, stone, and marble, the heat is excessive.—*(R. Turner, Ker, A. Ross, Sir D. Ochterlony, Thorn, &c. &c. &c.)*

JAHJOW.—A village in the province of Agra, 15 miles S. by W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 59′ N. long. 77° 52′ E. This place is remarkable as having been the field of two decisive battles; the first fought on the 8th of June, 1658, wherein Aurengzebe defeated his brother, Dara Shecoh; and the second on the 19th of June, 1707, between the son and grandson of Aurengzebe (Shah Allum and Azim Ushaun), in which the latter was defeated and slain.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

FUTTIPOOR.—This town stands about 19 miles W. S. W. from Agra. Lat. 26° 6′ N. long. 77° 34′ E. It is enclosed by a stone wall of great extent, built by the Emperor Acber. The space within does not appear to have ever been filled up with buildings, and the part now inhabited is but an inconsiderable village. The neighbouring hills are composed of greyish stone, and have supplied the materials with which the town is built. On the most elevated part of the rock stands the tomb of Shah Selim Cheestee, by the efficacy of whose devotion the Empress of Acber, after remaining several years barren, became pregnant and bore a son; who, in honour of the saint, was named Selim; and on ascending the throne of Hindostan, took the name of Jehangeer.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

MATHURA.—This town is situated on the west bank of the Jumna, 30 miles N. N. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 31′ N. long. 77° 33′ E. It acquired much celebrity in the tales of Hindoo mythology, as having been the scene of the birth and early adventures of their favourite deity, Krishna; and on the Mahommedan invasion became one of the first objects of their attention, having been taken and destroyed by Mahmood of Ghizni, so early as A. D. 1018. It was subsequently rebuilt and ornamented with several rich temples, the most magnificent of which was erected by Raja Beer Singh Deo, the Raja of Oorcha, and cost 36 lacks of rupees. This edifice was afterwards razed by Aurengzebe, who erected a mosque with the materials on the spot. In the fort are still to be seen the remains of an astronomical observatory, built by Raja Jeysingh, of Jyenagur, on the banks of the Jumna.

Mathura continued subject to the Mogul government until its dissolution, after which it experienced many misfortunes, especially in 1756, when Ahmed Shah Abdalli inflicted a general massacre on its inhabitants. Towards the conclusion of the 18th century, with the rest of the Agra province, it came into the possession of the Sindia Maharatta family, who conferred it on their commander-in-chief, General Perron. This officer made it his head quarters, strengthened the defences, and established here his principal cannon foundery; it was, however, taken without resistance by the British in 1803. On this occasion, an extraordinary and striking contrast appeared in the conduct of Lord Lake, the leader of the army by which this place was taken, to that of Sultan Mahmood. The English general not only protected the persons and respected the worship of the inhabitants, but ordered his own army while they lay within the precincts of the town to abstain from the slaughtering of cattle, as their doing so would be deemed a sacrilege by the Hindoos. Since that period it has continued subject to the British government, and has been the head quarters of a military division for the protection of the upper provinces.

Mathura, and Bindrabund in its vicinity, still continue the resort of Hindoo votaries, but they exhibit no remains of architectural magnificence similar to those still discovered in the temples of the Carnatic. There are a multitude of sacred monkies of a large sort fed here, and supported by a stipend bestowed by Madhajee Sindia. One of them was lame from an accidental hurt, and in consequence of this resemblance to his patron, who was lamed by a wound at the battle of Panniput, was treated with additional respect. In 1808, two young cavalry officers inadvertently shot at them, and were immediately attacked by the priests and devotees, and compelled to attempt to cross the Jumna on their elephant, in which endeavour they both perished. The fish in the Jumna which winds along the borders of Mathura, are equally protected by the Hindoo faith, and are frequently seen to rise to the surface as if in expectation of being fed.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Scott, Captain Turner, Kyd, &c. &c.)*

BINDRABUND *(Vrindavana)*.—This is a large town situated on the west bank of the Jumna, 35 miles N. N. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 34′ N. long. 77° 34′ E. The name, Vrindavana, signifies a grove of tulsi trees, and the place is famous as having been the scene of the youthful sports of Krishna, to whom many temples, still existing, were dedicated. Besides these, there are several sacred pools distinguished by the names of Radha, Syama, and Jeyacha, where the pilgrims by performing their ablutions wash away their sins. A flight of steps leading to the river is much revered as having been the place where Krishna fought with and defeated a serpent of great dimensions; and a cadamba tree, as the spot where he used to sit and play upon the flute. The

marks of his back are said to be still perceptible on the tree, and of his flute among the branches. Near to Bindrabund there is a mountain named Goverdhana, bent on one side owing to the following cause: During a great drought, when the people were worshipping Indra, the god of the heavens, Krishna, recommended them to propitiate the deity of the mountain, which they accordingly did. Krishna, then assuming the form of a god, sat on its top, from whence he stretched out his hand and devoured the food offered, but the weight of his body was such that the mountain bent under it; in which shape it still continues. In the months of August and October, great multitudes of his votaries having illuminated the mountain, ascend to its summit, and there perform certain solemnities. Different parts of the woods are pointed out as the haunts of Krishna, Radha, and the milk maids; and others as the residence of ancient Hindoo saints: but are now, as they probably were formerly, the dens of religious mendicants, existing in filth and idleness. The ceremonies performed here by the pilgrims, resemble those practised at the other sacred resorts, and consist of bathing, walking round sacred buildings and spots, uttering prayers, charms, and invocations, and feasting religious ascetics and Brahmins. In A.D. 1812, at the recommendation of the magistrate, and for the promotion of an improved system of police, gates were erected at the different entrances, and at the heads of the streets and alleys. The most respectable inhabitants and landed proprietors cheerfully acquiesced in the arrangements; but considerable opposition was experienced on the part of the Chobees, and other sacred persons, who compose a large proportion of the population.—*(Ward, Turner, &c.)*

Baad.—This small town stands in lat. 27° 5′ N. long. 77° 50′ E. six miles south from the city of Agra, the road to which is through a fertile country, interspersed with clumps of mangoe trees.

Betaisor.—A town in the Agra province, 35 miles S. E. from Agra. Lat. 26° 57′ N. long. 78° 24′ E.

Doab *(Two Waters)*.—This name should properly include all the territory between the Ganges and the Jumna; but is usually restricted to the southern portion, for the most part comprehended in the Agra province, and during the Mogul government, subdivided into the districts of Furruckabad, Kanoje, Etaweh, Korah, Currah, and Allahabad. There are several Doabs in Hindostan, the name designating any tract of country included between two rivers.

The surface of the Doab presents to the eye an extended level, with a fertile soil, and an abundance of tamarind and large mangoe trees, which give the country the appearance of a forest. The millet raised, although a small eared grain, furnishes a great quantity of straw, ten feet long, which is of great use

as provender for cattle; which are, however, much inferior in weight and size to those of the more southerly provinces Besides millet, sugar cane and barley are cultivated; and in the neighbourhood of Kanoje, considerable quantities of tobacco, the only plant introduced by Europeans that is in general request all over Hindostan. But the staple commodity of the northern part of the Doab, is cotton; and as on a due supply of this article, the most valuable fabrics of the lower provinces in a great measure depend, it becomes an object of importance to ascertain the mode in which the supply can be most regularly obtained. A coarse cotton cloth, dyed red with cheap materials, is manufactured in the central parts of this province, and also another species named gezis and gezinas. The soil of the Doab is so naturally fitted for the production of indigo, that the plant is there found in a wild state, of a superior quality to that raised by cultivation. In 1802 and 3, immediately prior to the acquisition of this territory, the exports from it to the countries then subject to the Maharattas were rice, spices of every kind, betel nut, cocoa nuts, chowries, shields from Silhet, tobacco, opium, copper, lead, pewter, tin, broad cloth, silks of all kinds, both China and Bengal, elephants, a small quantity of silver, and a considerable number of gold mohurs.

Prior to the British conquests in Upper Hindoston, the merchants from the westward conveyed their goods by land-carriage to Futtehghur, and occasionally to Caunpoor, where they were embarked and carried down the Ganges to Allahabad. Traders were then induced to follow this circuitous route, and to submit to the inconvenience of land-carriage, as well as to the vexatious duties levied during their progress across the Doab, from the apprehension of the depredations to which the boats would be exposed from the numerous bands of robbers, which then infested the shores of the Jumna.

While this tract of country remained subject to the Nabobs of Oude, salt was made in almost every village from Allahabad to Hurdwar, by professed manufacturers, who disposed of it in small quantities to the inhabitants. They rarely kept any quantity in store, but sold it as it was manufactured to the dealers in the article. When the salt monopoly was established as a source of revenue, 10,000 maunds of this country salt were then supposed to be deposited in various parts of the Doab and of Rohilcund. Salt of a similar quality was also made on the opposite bank of the Jumna; the total quantity then manufactured in the ceded provinces being estimated at only 40,000 maunds. This species of salt was solely used by the lower classes, and given to cattle; little or none was exported, as it was also made in the Oude reserved territories, nor was any fossil salt procured. Six different kinds of salt were then imported into the ceded

provinces and into the reserved dominions of Oude; the quantity of each kind was estimated in the following proportions, viz.—

Saumur (or Sambher)	100,000 maunds.
Salumbah	200,000
Balumbah	300,000
Boraree	100,000
Mateila	25,000
Lahoree	5,000
	730,000

Of this amount 400,000 maunds were imported into Rohilcund, and 300,000 to the Doab, and of the first mentioned quantity 180,000 maunds were re-exported to the Nabob's reserved dominions. Of the salt imported into the Doab, it may be estimated there were imported through that portion of the provinces of Delhi and Agra which then formed the

Jaghire of General Perron		240,000 maunds.
Saumur salt, imported principally by the route of Kotah and Gualior, to Etaweh and Rusoolpoor	45,000	
Ditto, imported into the Allahabad from Bundelcund	15,000	
Total	300,000	

After deducting the quantity exported to the Oude dominions, 120,000 maunds would remain for the consumption of that portion of the Doab ceded to the Company, exclusive of the country salt above mentioned.

The Saumur salt was extracted from the water of the lake of Sambher in Ajmeer or Rajpootana.

The Salumbah was made at Noh in the Delhi province, then under the controul of General Perron.

The Balumbah salt was manufactured in the neighbourhood of Combere, within the territories of the Bhurtpoor Raja.

The Boraree was mostly manufactured in the neighbourhood of Delhi; the Mateila at Turrah; and the Lahoree in the province of that name.

These various kinds of salt were generally conveyed on bullocks, but occasionally on camels, mules, and asses, to Hatras and Bhurtpoor, by different routes. Before the government monopoly of this article was established in the ceded districts, Sambher salt sold at from three to three and three quarters rupees per maund, but immediately on this event rose to six and seven rupees.

During the concluding years of the Nabob of Oude's government, the Doab was for some time under the management of Almas Ali Khan, and was then tolerably

well cultivated; but the whole face of the country in the Lower Doab, and the numerous towns in ruins, attest the miserable misgovernment it was usually liable to. Remains of its former population and agriculture are seen everywhere among the extensive wastes and jungles, which now occupy so large a proportion of the surface. During the months of April and May, before the commencement of the rains, the atmosphere of the Doab is excessively sultry, and even in the winter season it is only the morning that is cool. In some respects the geographical positions of the British judicial subdivisions in the Doab are much superior to those of the Rohilcund magistracies, as they reciprocally bound each other, and on the west and east, the Ganges and Jumna separate them from the territories of the adjacent independent powers. In addition to these advantages it is to be observed, that the extensive commercial intercourse, both foreign and domestic, operates powerfully in promoting the efficiency of the police, as it confers a certain degree of influence on the commercial classes, who are, of all others, the most interested in the maintenance of public order, and consequently in supporting the authority of the state. The industry of these classes, while it has the effect of contributing to the general prosperity, and ameliorating the condition of the people, renders them more disposed to subordination and respect for the laws, than a more idle and rapacious race of indigent cultivators and landholders. The crime of dacoity or gang robbery most frequently occurs in this region during the first six months of the year, when the Ganges and the Jumna are fordable; during the last six months it becomes less frequent. Indeed considering the almost total anarchy that prevailed in these districts before they came under the British domination, and that the Jauts, Goojurs, Rajpoots, Aheers, Lodhas, Patans, Mewaties, Meenas, Buddicks, Thugs, Cozauks, Chummas, and Khaukrobes (who still form the great bulk of the population) had been from time immemorial addicted to open and secret plunder, it is not to be wondered that criminal offences are not wholly eradicated. In 1811, the judge of circuit reported that there was reason to believe, there were not any professed gang robbers permanently resident in the southern portion of the Doab; and in the first six months of 1816, not an instance of dacoity had occurred in the districts of Caunpoor, Furruckabad, Etaweh, Agra, Alighur, and North Saharunpoor, and only one instance in Merut, while in Moradabad ten instances occurred, and in Bareily nine.

By the treaty of peace concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia on the 30th December, 1803, he ceded to the British all his forts, territories, and rights in the Doab, between the Ganges and Jumna, and all territories lying to the north of the Rajas of Jyenagur and Joudpoor, and the Rana of Gohud. The southern division of the Doab was ceded during the administration of the Marquis Wel-

lesley in 1801, by the late Nabob of Oude, Saadet Ali. It did not constitute any part of the original possessions of his family, having been added along with Rohilcund to the Oude dominions by the victories obtained by the British armies.—*(Tennant, Sir Henry Wellesley, Swinton, Guthrie, Blunt, Ker, Hawkins, &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF ETAWEH.

This district consists of territory in the Doab ceded to the British in 1801 by the Nabob of Oude, and situated principally between the 26th and 27th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Furruckabad and Alighur districts; on the south by that of Caunpoor; to the east are the Vizier's reserved territories, and on the west Agra and the Maharatta dominions south of the Chumbul: being itself a large component part of what is properly termed the Doab, a large proportion of what is stated above under that head with respect to soil, productions, climate, and commerce, applies particularly to this judicial subdivision, and need not be here repeated. The principal towns are Minpooree, the modern capital; Etaweh, the ancient one; Kanoje, Belah, Sindouse, and Shekoabad. The high roads to most of the largest cities in the Doab, pass through this district, which is consequently greatly frequented by merchants and travellers. On its cession by the Nabob of Oude, a civil establishment was appointed for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, subordinate to the Bareily court of circuit; but being comparatively a recent acquisition, we have no detailed reports of its statistical condition. The assessment of the land revenue, not having been wholly completed in 1809, a considerable difference will be observed between the first and last years of the following statement:

Settlement for the fusly or financial year 1216 (1809-10) .	2,857,410
Ditto, 1217	2,993,373
Ditto, 1218	3,010,546
Ditto, 1219	3,004,692
Ditto, 1220	3,062,068

Although, like the remainder of this portion of the Doab, Etaweh be tolerably exempt from the frequent perpetration of gang robberies, yet, until very recently, certain portions of it could scarcely be described as acknowledging subordination to the British laws and regulations, or to the decrees of the magistrate. In 1813, not only the pergunnah of Sindouse, but many others situated on the west side of the river Jumna, on account of their disorderly condition, required the especial attention of government, and even the interference of a military force. Owing to the nature of this tract of country, it is in the power of 20 or 30 men with

matchlocks to stop the navigation of the Jumna with impunity, and formerly, when pursued, they concealed themselves in the ravines with which the country is intersected. These predatory parties greatly injured the annual fair held at Buttersur, which, if properly protected, might have been rendered an extensive mart of all kinds of merchandize, as well as for horses and cattle. No instance of gang robbery occurred in Etaweh during the year 1811, but the bodies of eleven persons supposed to have been assassinated by Thugs were found in different parts of the district. In 1814, no less than 1,080 persons were convicted, and punished by the magistrate; while within the same space of time the Merut district had only 124.

Agra and this portion of the Doab can only be secured from the depredations of foreign gangs by patroles stationed on the banks of the Chumbul, to check the lawless tribes on the opposite shore; but before this expense be incurred, it is desirable, that the districts in this quarter of Hindostan be surveyed and new limited. The jail of Etaweh is reckoned the best situated, most commodious, and best executed jail in the north western provinces, and throughout the year 1813-14 contained on an average 640 prisoners.—*(Guthrie, Sir E. Colebrooke, Ker, Blunt, &c.)*

ROOROO.—A town in the province of Agra, 28 miles W. from Etaweh. Lat. 26° 16′ N. long. 79° 20′ E.

BELAH.—A town in the Agra province 21 miles S. S. W. from Kanoje. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 79° 33′ E.

RESOULABAD *(Rasulabad, the Abode of the Prophet)*.—A town in the province of Agra, 30 miles S. S. W. from Kanoje. Lat. 26° 40′ N. long. 79° 40′ E.

ARAIL.—A town in the Agra province, 11 miles S. by E. from Kanoje. Lat. 26° 56′ N. long. 79° 56′ E.

KANOJE *(Canyacubja)*.—A town of great antiquity and celebrity, situated to the west of the Ganges, about 65 miles W. N. W. from Lucknow. Lat 27° 4′ N. long. 79° 47′ E. In former times a district was attached to this city, which is described by Abul Fazel in 1582, as follows: "Circar Kanoje, containing 30 mahals; measurement 2,776,673 begahs; revenue 52,584,607 dams. This circar furnishes 3,765 cavalry, and 188,350 infantry."

The river Ganges is now about two miles distant from the town, but a canal has been cut, which makes a bend toward the place, and brings the sacred stream close to the citadel. The soil of the vicinity is of a sandy nature, but tolerably well cultivated, with abundance of mangoe clumps, and little jungle. When the rains have been deficient the crops fail, except where the husbandmen water the fields from wells with much manual labour. Kanoje consists at present of but one street; but for an extent of six miles, the mixture of small pieces of brick, and occasional vestiges of a building, point out the site of the ancient

capital of Hindostan. Here are the tombs of two Mahommedan saints, who lie in state under two mausoleums on an elevation covered with trees. From the terrace which surrounds them, there is a pleasant view of the plain, covered with ruined temples and tombs, and everywhere little images are seen scattered under the trees broken to pieces. No buildings of any importance now remain, and the brick walls, which do not appear of any great antiquity, are going rapidly to decay. Ancient coins of an irregular shape are frequently found among the ruins, inscribed with Sanscrit characters, and having in some instances the figure of a Hindoo deity on one side.

Kanoje, in the remote eras of Hindoo history, was a place of great renown, and the capital of a powerful empire which existed at the period of the Mahommedan invasion. The name Kanyacubja (Kanoje) is derived from the Sanscrit, signifying kanya a damsel, and cubja a spinal curve; and refers to a well known story narrated in the Hindoo mythological poems. The ancient language of Kanoje appears to form the ground work of the modern Hindostany, known also by the name of Hindi and Hindivi. Rajas of Kanoje are mentioned by Ferishta so early as 1008, and it was conquered, although not permanently retained, by Mahmood of Ghizni, in A. D. 1018. It is now fallen from its high estate, and at present the ruins of this once magnificent town, the quantity of jungle by which it is surrounded, and the deep ravines intersecting the country, are only noted as facilitating the commission of crimes, and afterwards furnishing a place of refuge to the perpetrators. Travelling distance from Agra 217 miles; from Lucknow 75; from Delhi 214; and from Calcutta 719 miles.—*(Colebrooke, Lord Valentia, Ramayuna, Blunt, &c. &c.)*

MENDYGHAUT *(Mhendi-ghat)*.—This town is situated on the west side of the Ganges, about 5 miles south from Kanoje. Lat. 27° 2′ N. long. 79° 57′ E.

MINPOOREE.—A walled town of considerably size, the modern capital of the Etaweh district, situated about 62 miles east from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 14′ N. long. 78° 54′ E. It stands on the banks of the Issa, in a fertile and productive country, and has a considerable population.

FIROZABAD *(the victorious residence)*.—A town in the Agra province 24 miles E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 9′ N. long. 78° 16′ E.

MOORLEYDURSERAI *(Murali Dhara Serai)*.—A town in the province of Agra, 43 miles E. by S. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 2′ N. long. 78° 34′ E.

GIROUT.—A town in the Agra province, 49 miles E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 12′ N. long. 78° 40′ E.

SHEKOABAD *(Shacohabad, the abode of magnificence)*.—This town takes its name from Dara Sheko, the eldest and most unfortunate son of the Emperor Shah Jehan, who, in the contest for empire with Aurengzebe, was defeated,

hunted down like a wild beast, and at last murdered. Lat. 27° 6′ N. long. 78° 27′ E. 37 miles E. from Agra.

SUMAUN.—A town in the province of Agra, 24 miles N. from Etaweh. Lat. 27° 7′ N. long. 78° 59′ E.

ETAWEH.—This town gives its name to the district, but has long ceased to be the capital. It stands on the east bank of the Jumna, many parts of which during the dry season are almost 60 feet above the water. The town is built on the heights, and as it approaches the river is divided into a number of separate hills by deep ravines. The Jumna during the height of the rains is here a large river, the islands and sand banks being then submerged. Lat. 26° 47′ N. long. 78° 53′ E. 70 miles S. E. from Agra.

SINDOUSE.—A fort and pergunnah in the province of Agra, district of Etaweh, bounded on the north by the Jumna river, and inhabited by a singularly turbulent race of people. The pergunnah of Sindouse is so much intersected by ravines as wholly to preclude cavalry from acting with effect, and to render it a dangerous and difficult service even for infantry, which can only act in small parties, liable to be cut off by the superior knowledge of the country possessed by their opponents. The zemindary being almost wholly surrounded by the Maharatta territories south of the Chumbul, offenders have a facility of escape not common in other districts.

THE DISTRICT OF FURRUCKABAD.

This district is comprehended in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna and province of Agra, and is situated between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Bareily and Alighur; to the south by Etaweh and Caunpoor; on the east it has Bareily; and on the west Alighur. This district compared with the adjacent ones is of small extent, and from its locality exempt from many disadvantages to which they are liable. Its jurisdiction comprises only 13 police stations, and being almost surrounded by the judicial subdivisions of Caunpoor, Etaweh, Alighur, and Bareily, it cannot be molested by foreign banditti, unless they first penetrate through some of these magistracies, and it is thus preserved from a contingency, which it is difficult to guard against in the neighbouring districts. The whole jurisdiction of Furruckabad is included within the Doab, except the police station of Kakutnow, which is on the east side of the Ganges and adjoins the Oude territories.

Under the Nabob of Oude's government the land revenue of Furruckabad had been carried so high, that no increase could be expected beyond the average jumma of the last year of that government, and the two settlements since the session were chiefly directed to the correction of any inequalities, which expe-

rience and attentive local search might discover, in the apportionment of the assessment on particular estates.

In the financial year 1220 (A. D. 1813-14) a five-years' settlement of the land revenue was made in the following proportions, viz.

1220, jumma	1,026,636
1221, ditto	1,048,640
1222, ditto	1,051,914
1223, ditto	1,052,593
1224, ditto	1,053,075

When the above settlement took place, the number of estates in the hands of farmers bore a much smaller proportion to those in the possession of proprietors, than was usual in the western provinces generally. Of 1440 estates which the district comprehended, only 267 were farmed, and in several of the latter cases no proprietor could be discovered, or was forthcoming. The total quantity of land, according to the revenue accounts, was then 1,895,851 begahs in cultivation, 1,136,615 waste, and 446,509 fit for cultivation; the number of villages was 2880. Under these circumstances, the Furruckabad district appeared to be in a sufficient state of advancement to warrant the confirmation of the existing assessment in perpetuity, which the commissioners of the upper provinces accordingly recommended; but the vice president in council thought that more precise information was still required, to enable the government to form a mature judgment on so important a subject. By precise information was principally meant the proportion which the cultivated part of different estates bore to the uncultivated: exclusive of which, however, various other points appeared to require elucidation, such as the gross produce which the cultivator should pay, whether in money or kind, to the zemindars; a clear definition of the sources from which the latter are entitled to draw a rent from the peasantry; also an accurate and well ascertained boundary of the different zemindaries; and finally, to ascertain the general interests of the government and the community, in the several gradations from the Sudder Malgoozar, to the actual cultivator of the soil. Arrangements for ascertaining these particulars being then in progress, it was deemed expedient to postpone the promulgation of a measure in its nature irrevocable, and involving so materially, not only the financial interests of the government, but the welfare and prosperity of those living under its protection.

Before the acquisition of the Doab by the British, the small principality of Furruckabad was surrounded by the dominions of the Nabob of Oude, to whom the Patan chief of Furruckabad was tributary. In 1801, by an arrangement made with the former, the tribute payable by the latter was transferred to the Company; and in 1802, the civil and military government of the country was

assumed, making an allowance to the Nabob of Furruckabad of 180,000 rupees per annum. Prior to this period the state of the country was most wretched. For many years preceding that event, there had not existed even nominally any court for the cognizance of criminal acts, or the redress of civil wrongs; and the Patans of Furruckabad, always noted for their ferocity, were habituated with impunity to the commission of the greatest atrocities. Murders were so frequent that the inhabitants did not dare to venture out after sunset; and the workmen then employed at the British military cantonments, always retired to their houses during day-light. Forcible burglaries took place in the middle of the town, and murders were often perpetrated in the streets, every man trusting to his own individual means of revenge and defence. Since that period the bands of robbers have been extirpated, and owing to the increased security of property, the value of lands and houses has greatly risen. In 1812, the police was so efficient that there were not any gangs of dacoits known to be resident within the limits of Furruckabad, such robberies as happened, having been ascertained to have been committed by banditti who came from the opposite side of the Jumna. It would be easy to prove that the great mass of the inhabitants of every part of India have reason to rejoice at coming under the British controul, but the blessings to this small district in particular have been incalculable. The principal towns are Furruckabad, Futtehghur, Alygunge, and Kadirgunge.—*(Public MS. Documents, Guthrie, Lord Valentia, &c. &c. &c.)*

FURRUCKABAD *(Farakhabad, a happy abode)*.—The capital of the Furruckabad district, and one of the principal cities of Upper Hindostan. It stands at a short distance from the west shore of the Ganges, in lat. 27° 24′ N. 79° 27′ E. and is only 4 miles distant from the Nabob of Oude's reserved territories. The town is surrounded by a wall, which has been kept in tolerable order by the magistrates. Some of the streets are wide, and many of the houses and open spots are shaded with trees. By the police arrangements the city is divided into 7 wards, which are again partitioned into 194 mohullahs, many of which are narrow; the buildings are lofty, and constructed of brick. They likewise appear at some period to have had gates, the gateways being still in existence, standing entire. There are also sundry courts with only one entrance, besides narrow lanes and passages, which if furnished with gates, and guarded by private watchmen, might be made perfectly secure against robbers. Many years have not elapsed, since every man possessed of property was under the necessity of relying for its protection solely on his own exertions; the number of private watchmen therefore then entertained at Furruckabad must have been very great.

From an actual survey executed by the magistrate in 1811, it was ascertained that the town of Furruckabad contained 14,999 houses, of which number 13,348

were constantly occupied, the remaining 1651 being shops occupied only during the day-time. Allowing 5 to a house, the total population would amount to 66,740, which must be considerably increased by the temporary residence of travellers and foreign merchants, Furruckabad being considered the chief commercial emporium of the conquered and ceded territories, and the common resort of needy and dissolute characters from all parts of Hindostan, not to mention the vicinity of the British cantonments at Futtehghur. The amount paid into the Furruckabad treasury on account of duties received at the custom-house, in 1812, was 252,183; and in 1813, rupees 194,000. On the conclusive cession of the district by the Nabob of Oude in 1802, a civil establishment for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue was fixed here, subordinate to the Bareily court of appeal and circuit. One of the most brilliant achievements of the war of 1805, was the surprisal at this place, by Lord Lake, of Holcar's army, which thinned the numbers, and entirely broke the spirit of his cavalry. Travelling distance from Lucknow, 111 miles; from Benares, from Calcutta, by Birboom, 755 miles.—*(Guthrie, Lord Valentia, Rennell, &c.)*

FUTTEHGHUR.—This place is so close to Furruckabad, as in a manner to form but one town, being only distinguished as the head quarters of a brigade of troops, which are usually stationed in this part of Upper Hindostan. It stands on the west bank of the Ganges, in lat. 27° 21′ N. long. 79° 30′ E. and about 90 miles N. W. from Lucknow.

KADIRGUNGE *(Cadarganj)*.—A town in the province of Agra, 42 miles N. W. from Furruckabad. Lat. 27° 49′ N. long. 78° 56′ E.

KHASGUNGE.—A town in the Agra province, 60 miles N. E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 50′ N. long. 78° 32′ E.

NUBEEGUNGE.—A town in the province of Agra, 18 miles S. W. from Furruckabad. Lat. 27° 14′ N. long. 79° 15′ E.

ACBERPOOR.—A town in the Agra province, 25 miles W. S. W. from Caunpoor. Lat. 26° 23′ N. long. 79° 52′ E.

KALPEE *(Calpi)*.—A large and populous town in the province of Agra, formerly the capital of a small state, but now under the British government, situated on the S. W. bank of the Jumna, about 40 miles S. W. from Caunpoor. Lat. 26° 10′ N. long. 79° 41′ E. In 1582, a district was attached to this place, which is described by Abul Fazel as follows; "Circar Calpee, containing 16 mahals; measurement 300,029 begahs; revenue 49,456,730 dams; seyurghal 1,078,292 dams. This circar furnishes 1540 cavalry, 30 elephants, and 34,000 infantry."

The modern town of Kalpee is a place of considerable trade, and the entrepot for the transportation of cotton from the south western provinces into the British

territories. In former times it stood on the plain at some distance from the river, but in consequence of the frequent incursions of the Maharâttas, and other plunderers, the inhabitants removed to the present more secure situation on the banks of the river, amongst extensive ravines. There is here a small fort, which completely commands the navigation of the river, and is built on a high bank; but although the site be naturally strong, the artificial defences are so ill arranged, that an enemy can approach undiscovered to within a few yards of the eastern face, where the wall is only 14 feet high, supported behind by a thick parapet of earth, so that the besiegers are secure from the fire of the garrison, unless the latter put themselves on an equality by standing on the parapet.

The Mahommedans penetrated into this quarter about A. D. 1203, and in this neighbourhood was fought, in 1765, the first action that took place between the British (then commanded by General Carnac) and the Maharattas. The latter came to the assistance of Shuja ud Dowlah, but after a weak resistance were totally routed, and compelled to recross the Jumna with the utmost precipitation. In 1804, among the dependants of the Peshwa's government was Nana Govind Row, of Kalpee, whose valuable district of Mahoba lies in the centre of Bundelcund, and had not been conquered by Ali Bahauder. It was nevertheless seized by Raja Himmut Bahauder as part of his jaidad under the British, which induced the Kalpee chief to unite his forces with Shumshere Bahauder in opposition to the British. In consequence of this conduct, the fort and district of Kalpee, and some other lands on the northern frontier of Bundelcund, which had been held by this chief as a tributary of the Peshwa, were occupied by British troops; but by a subsequent arrangement after Nana Govind Row had submitted to the views of government, all his territories, with the exception of Kalpee, and a few villages to the northward on the banks of the Jumna, were restored to him.

By this treaty, concluded the 23d of October, 1806, Nana Govind Row agreed to cede in perpetuity the city and district of Kalpee, in the province of Agra, and several villages situated on the right bank of the Jumna, between Kalpee and Rajpoor. As an equivalent, the British government granted to the Nana certain villages, with their lands, in the province of Bundelcund, in addition to what was left him of his old territory, the whole yielding a revenue of 145,000 rupees a year. The revenue of the country ceded to the British was 76,000, and that transferred to the Nana amounted to about the same. It was agreed that over his whole country, he was to be considered as the independent and uncontrouled ruler, and exempt from every future claim or demand on the part of the British government. As one-third of the diamond mines at Pannah

had from ancient times been committed by his Highness the Peshwa to the care of Nana Govind Row, it was arranged that the Nana should not be molested in the possession of the said portion of the mines in question, and the British government accordingly renounced all claim thereto in his favour. In 1812, the Nana of Kalpee was considered, with respect to Sindia, as an independent prince, and although tributary to the Peshwa, the nature of the British alliance with that prince, gave it a title to guarantee the Nana's possessions; but without imposing any obligation to that effect.

Travelling distance from Lucknow 28 miles; from Agra 160; from Benares 239; and from Calcutta 699 miles.—*(MSS. Twemlow, Treaties, &c. &c.)*

JELLALPOOR.—A town in the provice of Agra, situated in the midst of ravines on the south side of the Betwa river, 19 miles south from Kalpee. Lat. 25° 54′ N. long. 79° 45′ E. The houses are chiefly of brick and adapted for defence, being pierced with loop holes for musquetry, from whence a heavy cross fire might be kept up.—*(Twemlow, &c.)*

KOONCH.—This town is situated about 60 miles E. by S. from Gualior, in lat. 26° 3′ N. long. 79° 4′ E.; but, although subject to the British government, is entirely insulated from their possessions on one side, by an intervening space of foreign territory belonging to the Nana of Kalpee, and on the others, by lands belonging to Sindia, the Ditteah Raja, the Sumpter Rajas, and the Soubahdar of Jhansi. On this account the Koonch pergunnah is much infested by depredators from the adjacent petty states, the chiefs of which scarcely maintain even the semblance of a police.

By the conditions of the treaty of peace concluded with Jeswunt Row Holcar in 1805, this small territory was assigned in jaghire to Bheemah Bhye, the daughter of that prince, to whom the surplus revenue was to be paid, but the administration of the government to be left with the British. In 1811, an attempt was made by some of the intriguers at Holcar's court to raise money on its security, and also to transfer it to Ameer Khan, the celebrated freebooter, both of which transactions the British government refused to sanction, denying the right of the said intriguers to sell or pledge what did not belong to them.—*(Wauchope, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

LAHAR.—A town in the Agra province, 53 miles E. by S. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 12′ N. long. 78° 53′ E.

JALOOAN *(or Jallown)*.—A large and populous town situated on a gently rising ground, 30 miles W. from Kalpee, in the Agra province. Lat. 26° 10′ N. long. 79° 13′ E. Before the British domination extended to this quarter, Jalooan was a considerable mart for inland traffic, especially of cotton, which was transported from hence by land to the town of Caunpoor on the Ganges, a

distance of little more than 70 miles, and from thence carried to Mirzapoor by water. A great deal of cotton of an excellent quality is still cultivated in the neighbourhood, frequently intermixed with grain. The soil appears to be a marle mixed with clay.

SUMPTER.—The capital of a petty chief in the province of Agra, under British protection, situated 58 miles S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 50′ N. long. 78° 50′ E.

EMROKE.—A town in the Agra province, 63 miles S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 50′ N. long. 78° 56′ E.

NARWAR *(Naravara)*.—A town within the Maharatta territories, in the province of Agra, south of the Chumbul river, situated on the east side of the Sinde river, 40 miles S. by W. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 40′ N. long. 77° 51′ E. When Abul Fazel wrote, Narwar had a district attached to it, described in the Ayeen Acberry as follows: "Circar Narwar, containing 5 mahals; measurement 394,350 begahs; revenue 4,233,322 dams; seyurghal 95,994 dams. This circar furnishes 500 cavalry, and 20,000 infantry."

The face of the country in this quarter of the Agra province is hilly, and woody, but the soil when properly cultivated and watered is extremely productive. It is intersected by the Sinde, which is the chief river; the principal towns are Narwar the capital, Collarass, and Shepoor.

The town of Narwar makes some figure in history, having been conquered by the Mahommedans so early as A. D. 1251. It appears, however, to have subsequently regained its independence, as in 1509, we find it again ruled by an Hindoo prince, from whom it was taken by Sultan Secunder Lodi. At the peace concluded with the Maharatta states in 1803, the fort and district of Narwar were guaranteed by the British government to Raja Umbajee Row, and its revenues were then estimated so high as ten lacks of rupees per annum. The guarantee appears for some reason to have been afterwards withdrawn, as in 1810, the place was surrendered to Dowlet Row Sindia, who had managed to corrupt the garrison; and in 1818, Madhoo Singh, the ex-Raja of Narwar, and Jeysingh of Ragooghur were both at the head of predatory bands, which Sindia was utterly unable to coerce.

MAHONA.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, 34 miles S. W. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 54′ N. long. 77° 27′ E.

JHUREE.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, 75 miles W. by N. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 33′ N. long. 77° 24′ E.

MOHUNGUR.—A town in the province of Agra, south of the Chumbul, 60 miles W. S. W. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 77° 21′ E.

COLLARASS.—A town in the district of Narwar, 80 miles N. from Seronge.

Lat. 25° 14′ N. long. 77° 25′ E. This place is surrounded by an old stone wall of no strength, near to which is a large nullah, or water course, of fine water. The country to the north is jungly, thinly inhabited, much cut up by ravines, and, except in the immediate vicinity of the Sinde river, is during the dry season very ill supplied with water.—*(MSS. &c.)*

SHEPOORY.—A town in the province of Agra, 35 miles S. W. from Narwar. Lat. 25° 25′ N. long. 77° 10′ E. To the south of this place the country is level and tolerably well cultivated, but to the north-west it is extremely rugged and covered with jungle. The town is nearly a collection of ruins.

GUNEISHGHUR *(Ganesa Ghar)*.—This place stands at the southern extremity of the Agra province, 75 miles N. by W. from Seronge. Lat. 25° 7′ N. long. 77° 23′ E.

PECHOR.—A considerable town in the Maharatta territories, in the province of Agra, situated about 24 miles S. S. E. from Gualior. Lat. 25° 59′ N. long. 78° 16′ E.

GUALIOR *(Gualiar)*.—This strong fortress, the modern capital of Dowlet Row Sindia's dominions, is situated in the province of Agra, about 70 miles direct distance south from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 15′ N. long. 78° 1′ E. The hill on which it stands is in length one mile and six-tenths, but its greatest breadth does not exceed 300 yards. The height at the north end, where it is greatest, is 342 feet, and the sides so steep as to be nearly perpendicular. A stone parapet extends all round, close to the brow of the hill, which is so precipitous, that it was judged perfectly secure from assault, until Major Popham took it by escalade in 1780. The storming party was led by Captain Bruce, brother to the traveller. The town, which is placed along the east side of the hill, is large, well inhabited, and contains many good houses of stone, which is furnished in abundance by the neighbouring hills, forming an amphitheatre round the town and fort, at the distance of from one to four miles. These mountains are principally composed of schistus, which apparently contains a large portion of iron; their surface is rugged, and nearly destitute of vegetation. To the east runs the small river Soonrica, which in the beginning of spring is almost dry. At the distance of 700 yards from the northern extremity, is a conical hill, having on the top a remarkable building, consisting of two stone pillars joined by an arch. Within the summit of the fort are large natural excavations, which contain a never failing supply of excellent water. A considerable trade is carried on in cloth from Chandiri, and in indigo. About 14 miles distant, on the road to Narwar, is an iron mine at the village of Beereh.

Gualior must have been at all times a military fort of great consequence, both from its central position in Hindostan, and the peculiarity of its formation, which

was by the natives generally esteemed impregnable. During the time of the Mogul empire it was a state prison, where the obnoxious branches of the royal family were confined, and a large menagerie consisting of lions, tigers, and other wild beasts kept for their entertainment. When possessed by Madhajee Sindia, he appropriated it to the same use, and on account of its security made it a grand depot for artillery, ammunition, and military stores.

Rajas of Gualior are mentioned so early as A. D. 1008, and it was first taken by the Mahommedans, in 1197, after a long siege. The Hindoos appear afterwards to have regained possession, as it was again subdued, in 1235, by Altumsh, the Patan Sovereign of Delhi. In A. D. 1519, Gualior surrendered to the forces of Ibrahim Lodi, the Delhi Emperor, after having been 100 years occupied by the Hindoos; and subsequent to this period it must have been acquired by the Emperor Humayoon, for in 1543 we find it was delivered up by his governor to Shere Khan, the Afghan. Thus it would seem, notwithstanding its reputation for impregnability, to have very frequently changed masters. In 1582, it was the capital town of a district described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Circar Gualior, containing 12 mahals; measurement 1,146,465 begahs; revenue 29,683,749 dams. This circar furnishes 2490 cavalry, and 43,000 infantry."

After the dismemberment of the Mogul empire, Gualior came into the possession of the Rana of Gohud, from whom it was taken by the Maharattas. In 1780, it was taken by escalade by the troops under Major Popham, as above related, but afterwards delivered up to the Rana of Gohud, who, failing in his engagements, was abandoned to the resentment of the Maharattas. Madhajee Sindia invested the fort, and after a fruitless siege of many months prevailed at last, in 1784, by corrupting part of the garrison. In 1803, Raja Ambajee Inglia engaged by treaty to deliver up the fortress of Gualior, then in his possession, in consideration of obtaining favourable terms of the British government. When the period for its surrender arrived, the commandant, clandestinely instigated by Ambajee, refused to deliver it up. It was in consequence invested by a detachment under Colonel Harry White, batteries opened against the fort, and on the 4th of February, a practical breach having been effected, the garrison made overtures to surrender, on condition of receiving a donation of 50,000 rupees. This proposal was rejected by Mr. Græme Mercer, the commissioner, and by Colonel White; but an arrangement having been subsequently effected, by which the garrison was to receive the value of certain articles of provisions in the fortress, the British troops were put in possession of all the gates on the night of the 4th, and on the 5th of February, 1804, the fort was evacuated. By the final treaty of 1805, when the Bengal government abandoned all territories to the south of the Chumbul, Gualior came into the possession of Dowlet Row Sindia, who, up

to 1810, was generally in motion with the greater part of his army, Oojein being merely his nominal capital. But shortly after the forced resumption of Gualior from the family of the deceased Ambajee, he pitched his camp a short distance to the south west of that fortress, and as his court has never been moved from the spot, except for occasional pilgrimages, a second city has arisen, on the site of his encampment, surpassing the old one in population and magnitude. Travelling distance from Delhi 197 miles, from Lucknow 211, from Benares 355, from Nagpoor 380, from Calcutta, by Birboom, 805 miles.—*(Public MS. Documents, Hunter, Maurice, Major William Hamilton, Rennell, &c.)*

NOORABAD *(the Place of Light)*.—A large village in the province of Agra, situated on the south bank of the Sank river, 13 miles N. by W. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 25′ N. long. 77° 56′ E. Adjoining to Noorabad is a large garden laid out by Aurengzebe, within which is a monument to the memory of Goona Begum, a princess celebrated for her personal and mental accomplishments. Many of her compositions in the Hindostany language are still sung and admired. The shrine bears this inscription in Persian, "Alas! alas! Goona Begum." The surface of the country in this neighbourhood is bare, being destitute of trees, and almost without cultivation; near the road going south are several small forts, some of mud and some of stone, possessed by petty chiefs, who formerly derived a precarious revenue from predatory enterprizes.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

GOHUD.—The capital of a district in the province of Agra, 22 miles N. E. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 24′ N. long. 78° 20′ E. About the middle of last century Gohud was a small village, attached to the district of Gualior, and the Rana's ancestors were zemindars of the village, and by caste Jauts of the Bamrowly tribe. Bheem Singh, the Rana, prior to the battle of Paniput, in 1761, acquired Gualior, but was afterwards obliged to yield it to the Maharattas. When this nation lost the battle of Paniput, the Rana of Gohud attempted to shake off their yoke, but was subdued by Ragoonauth Row, in 1766, and compelled to continue tributary. On a subsequent rupture, Gualior was taken by Madhajee Sindia, in 1784.

On the 17th of January, 1804, a treaty was concluded by the British government with the Rana of Gohud, Kirrut Singh Luckindra, by which he was to be established in the sovereignty of Gohud, Gualior, and a considerable number of adjacent districts, in consideration of which he was to secure and maintain a subsidiary force of 3 battalions, and make over the city and fortress of Gualior to the British. From the inability of the Rana to settle the above countries and fulfil his engagements, the whole treaty was declared null and void, and another negotiated on the 19th of December, 1805, by Græme Mercer, Esq. on the part of the Bengal government, by the conditions of which the Raja agreed to relinquish

the country and fort of Gohud, and the other districts guaranteed to him by the former treaty, to be disposed of as might be judged expedient.

From the consideration that the failure of the former treaty, on the part of the Rana, had arisen from inability and want of means, the British government determined to make an adequate provision for him, and in consequence granted him the districts of Dholpoor, Baree, and Rajakera, in perpetual sovereignty. No engagements, however, were entered into for his support in these possessions, and he was consequently left entirely to his own resources; the British government, by a refinement in policy, declining all interference with him internally or externally, and disclaiming all responsibility for the assistance or protection of the territory it had bestowed on him, recommending him to adjust all his disputes in the manner most convenient to himself. Gualior and the Gohud districts have ever since been harrassed, possessed by, or tributary to, Dowlet Row Sindia.

The territory of Gohud, although hilly, is fertile, and in 1790 was supposed to yield a revenue of 22 lacks per annum, out of which seven went to the expenses of collections. What modifications the limits of this principality subsequently received we are not informed; but in 1805, we find them described by Mr. Metcalfe, then assistant to the resident at Delhi, as extending along the Chumbul, and producing only 18 lacks of rupees per annum, of which nine were appropriated to the payment of subsidiary forces. The chief town is Gohud, but there are many other positions naturally strong, some of which are fortified, and capable of offering a considerable resistance.—*(3d and 7th Registers, Treaties, Metcalfe, &c.)*

ATTAIR.—A town in the Agra province, situated to the south of the Chumbul, 46 miles S. E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 44′ N. long. 78° 29′ E.

RAJAKERA.—A town in the province of Agra, 31 miles S. E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 47′ N. long. 78° 6′ E.

ANTERY *(Antari)*.—A walled town of considerable size, within that portion of the Agra province tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the banks of the small river Dealoo, 12 miles S. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 5′ N. long. 78° 5′ E. The neighbouring hills are of quartzoze stone.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

BHIND.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, 46 miles N. E. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 27′ N. long. 78° 40′ E. In January, 1804, this was one of the towns guaranteed by treaty to the Rana of Gohud.

AMAIN.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, 41 miles E. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 78° 40′ E.

CHATTERGHUR.—A town in the Agra province, south of the Chumbul, 26 miles E. by S. from Gualior. Lat. 26° 10′ N. long. 78° 25′ E.

SUBBULGUR.—A town within the Maharatta territories, in the province of Agra, 65 miles S. S. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 77° 20′ E

MUNDLAYER.—A town in the province of Agra, N. W. of the Chumbul river, and 75 miles S. W. of the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 77° 7′ E. In 1582, when Abul Fazel wrote, this town was of considerable importance, and the capital of a district; but it has been since much reduced, and is now within the territories tributary to the Maharattas.

BAHDORIAH.—A subdivision of the Agra province, intersected by the river Chumbul, partly within the British territories and partly in those of Dowlet Row Sindia.

SRIMUTTRA.—This is a town of considerable size, built on a naked rock of red stone, of which material all the houses are constructed; but they are of a mean appearance, and the streets very narrow. Working the red stone into slabs furnishes employment for the greater part of the inhabitants. Lat. 26° 41′ N. long. 77° 20′ E.—*(Broughton, &c.)*

MUNEAH.—A town in the province of Agra, 26 miles S. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 77° 47′ E.

DHOLPOOR *(Dholapoor)*.—This town stands about one mile north of the Chumbul river, on the banks of which is a fort of the same name, in the province of Agra, 34 miles S. by E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 42′ N. long. 77° 44′ E. The river in February is here about three-fourths of a mile across, and must be forded at Kyteree, four miles higher up, as it is deep at the fort. Dholpoor is a town of considerable size, and the hilly country begins in its vicinity, approaching from the north. The pergunnahs of Dholpoor, Barree, and Rajakera, are rich and productive, and during the government of Ambajee are said to have yielded 5 lacks; in 1805, while under the collector of Agra, the land revenue of these domains was 395,606 rupees.—*(Metcalfe, &c. &c.)*

BARREE *(Bari)*.—This is the second town of consequence in the Rana of Dholpoor's dominions, and is situated in lat. 26° 42′ N. long. 77° 28′ E. 42 miles S. S. W. from Agra. The streets are narrow, but many of the houses, which are built of red stone, are two stories high, and have a greater appearance of comfort than is usual in Indian habitations. Barree has for many years been chiefly inhabited by Patans, and contains several handsome Mahommedan tombs. Before the peace of 1805, the surrounding country was much exposed to depredations, and was in consequence ill cultivated, but it has since considerably improved.—*(Broughton, &c.)*

KAROULY *(Keruli)*.—The Raja of Karouly's dominions lie south west of Dholpoor and Barree, south of Jyenagur, and north west of Gohud and the Chumbul river. The town is situated on the Pushperee, a small river with high perpendicular banks, which during the rainy season swells to a torrent, and on the other side is almost surrounded by deep and extensive ravines. The fort is

in the centre of the town, and surrounded by a good stone wall with bastions. The Raja is of the Rajpoot tribe of Jadoo, which formerly reigned at Biana. They have been gradually stripped of their best possessions by the Maharattas: the revenues of this little state not exceeding one lack and a half of rupees per annum, out of which the Peshwa claims a tribute of 25,000 rupees. The most productive part of its territory is a narrow valley, which extends 30 miles to the Bunnass river, and is scarcely a mile in breadth. Raja Manick Pal died in 1805, and was succeeded by a boy then 13 years of age. In December, 1817, the Karouly chief signed a treaty, and put himself under the protection of the British government, in consequence of which, and of the prior experience of his favourable disposition, he was exonerated from the tribute which he had been accustomed to pay to the Peshwa. The town of Karouly is situated about 75 miles S. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 32′ N. long. 76° 55′ E.—*(Broughton, Metcalfe, &c. &c.)*

KHOOSHALGHUR *(Khash-hal-ghar)*.—A mud fort with double walls, round bastions, and a ditch, in the province of Agra, north-west of the Chumbul, 66 miles S. E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 32′ N. long. 76° 27′ E.

HINDONE.—This was formerly a large city, and still contains extensive buildings, but owing to the depredations of the Maharattas, and other plunderers, is now but thinly inhabited. To the south there is much forest, and little cultivation. Hindone stands in lat. 26° 47′ N. long. 76° 54′ E. 65 miles S. W. from Agra.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

BEJIGHUR.—This town stands on the south side of the river Koharry, and within the Maharatta territories south of the Chumbul river, about 80 miles S. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 77° 15′ E.

BHURTPOOR *(Bharatapura)*.—The capital of an independent native state in the province of Agra, 31 miles W. by N. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 17′ N. long. 77° 23′ E. The Bhurtpoor territory, including the small pergunnah of Tanua, is superior in extent to that of Macherry Raja, extends from Gopaulghur in 27° 39′ N. to Biana, and forms the western boundary of the Agra district. In 1818, the total area was rather less than 5000 square miles. Bhurtpoor, Deeg, Combhere, Weyre, and Biana, are its chief towns. Gopaulghur is a strong fort, and the town of Kurnau is of great extent, with a large brick fort in the centre, in a very ruinous condition, and it is only the eastern part of the town that is inhabited. Nuggur, Robass, Wheeguish, Roodawah, Nudbharee, Phurser, and others, are of little note. The country from Deeg to Bhurtpoor is so low, that during very heavy rains it may be said to be completely inundated. The Bhurtpoor Raja is one of the principal chieftains of the Jauts, which are a tribe of low Sudras; who, presuming on their temporary importance, attempt to assume the title of Khetri (the military caste).

The tribe of Jauts, for the first time, attracted notice in Hindostan, about the year 1700, when having migrated from the banks of the Indus, in the lower part of the province of Mooltan, they were allowed to settle in the avocations of industry in several parts of the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna. Their subsequent progress was uncommonly rapid, and during the civil wars, carried on by the successors of Aurengzebe, the Jauts found means to secure themselves a large portion of country, in which they built forts, and accumulated great wealth. The title of Raja is a Hindoo distinction, which some of them have assumed, but to which they have no more real right than their ancestors had to the contents of the imperial caravans, which they were in the habit of plundering. During Aurengzebe's last march towards the Deccan, Churamun, the Jaut, pillaged the baggage of the army, and with part of the spoil erected the fortress of Bhurtpoor. Sooraj Mull, one of his successors, new modelled the government, and was afterwards killed in battle with Nudjiff Khan, A. D. 1763. He was succeeded by his son, Jewar Singh, who was secretly murdered in 1768. At this period, the Jaut territories extended from Agra to within a few miles of Delhi on the north, and to near Etaweh on the south. They also possessed a tract of land south of the Jumna; and besides places of inferior strength, had three forts, which were then deemed impregnable. About 1780, Nudjiff Khan subdued great part of the Jaut country, and left the Raja little besides Bhurtpoor, and a small district of about seven lacks of rupees per annum.

On the death of Jewar Singh in 1768, his brother, Ruttun Singh, ascended the throne, and being also assassinated, was succeeded by his brother, Kairy Singh. On the death of this chief, Runjeet Singh assumed the sovereignty, in the possession of which he still continues. When Madhajee Sindia first undertook the conquest of Upper Hindostan, he experienced essential assistance from Raja Runjeet Singh, who on this account was treated with great comparative lenity by the Maharattas.

In September, 1803, a treaty of perpetual friendship was concluded by General Lake on the part of the British government, with the Bhurtpoor Raja, by the conditions of which the friends and enemies of the one state were to be considered in the same relation to the other; and the British government engaged never to interfere in the concerns of the Raja's country, or demand tribute from him. The Raja, on the other hand, engaged, that if an enemy invaded the British territories, he would assist them with his forces to compel his expulsion. In like manner the British government undertook to defend the Bhurtpoor principality against all attacks from without; and so sincere was the union on the part of the former, that districts yielding a revenue of 754,000 rupees, were made over to the latter in full sovereignty.

Notwithstanding so regular a treaty, ratified in the most solemn manner, with all the customary formalities, and in the maintenance of which both the Raja's honour and interest seemed concerned, in 1805 this prince most unaccountably espoused the declining cause of Jeswunt Row Holcar, recently discomfited by Lord Lake, and admitted him with the shattered remains of his army into the fortress of Bhurtpoor, before which Lord Lake arrived on the 3d of January, 1805.

Bhurtpoor is a town of great extent, and every where strongly fortified, being surrounded by a mud wall of great height and thickness, with a very wide and deep ditch. The fort stands in its eastern extremity, and is of a square figure; one side overlooking the country, the other three are within the town. It occupies a situation that appears more elevated than the town; its walls are also said to be higher, and its ditch of greater width and depth. The circumference of both town and fort is above eight miles, and their walls, in all that extent, are flanked with bastions at short distances, on which are mounted a very numerous artillery. The place also derives a considerable addition to its strength, from the quantity of water which its locality enables the garrison to command, and when filled, the ditch presents a most formidable obstacle. When Lord Lake's army approached Bhurtpoor, a large expanse of water on the north west side of the town suddenly disappeared, and it was subsequently discovered that the whole had been admitted into the ditch which surrounds the town and fort.

Within these fortifications the whole forces of the Bhurtpoor Raja were concentrated. The infantry of Jeswunt Row Holcar had taken up a position and entrenched themselves under the walls, and all the inhabitants of the adjacent country, who were capable in any way of assisting in its defence, were thrown into the place. The assembly of such a multitude created the most serious obstacle to the operations of the British army. Measures were speedily executed to retard its progress; and the effects of the artillery were almost immediately repaired, which probably constituted the most efficient source of that resistance which was experienced during the siege.

The town and fort were amply provided with all kinds of provisions and military stores, Bhurtpoor having long been the mart of Hindostan for these articles, and they had been also accumulated by the Raja. The great extent of the place and the smallness of the British army, confined the operations to one point; the besieged had consequently an opportunity of procuring supplies from the neighbouring country, which would have been precluded if the place could have been completely invested. In the course of this siege also, the British engineer officers, however zealous in the performance of their duty, were found neither in

abilities, knowledge, or experience, adequate to the magnitude of the exigence; which deficiency had doubtless considerable effect in impeding the progress of the besieging army. And finally, due credit must be given to the bravery of its defenders, and to the military conduct of their leaders; but there is reason to believe, that, with the exception of Holcar's forces encamped under the walls, and which were attacked and totally routed with the loss of all their artillery, the garrison and inhabitants sustained but a trifling loss, compared with the enormous carnage which destroyed the flower of the British soldiers, amounting to 3100 killed and wounded : viz.—

1st storm . . .	456
2d ditto . . .	591
3d ditto . . .	894
4th ditto . . .	987
	2928
Other casualties . .	172
Total . .	3100

Notwithstanding the obstinacy of the defence, and the slaughter of the besiegers, the Raja perceiving that British perseverance must ultimately prevail, sent his son to Lord Lake's camp with the keys of the fortress, and agreed to compel Holcar to quit Bhurtpoor. On the 17th of April, 1805, the siege being thus concluded, a second treaty was arranged, when the former professions of friendship were renewed, but with stipulations calculated to ensure a stricter performance of them on the part of the Raja, who consented, that as a security, one of his sons should constantly remain with the commanding officer of the British forces in Upper Hindostan, until such time as the government should be perfectly satisfied in regard to the Raja's fidelity; upon the conviction of which they agreed to restore him the fortress of Deeg. In consideration of the peace granted, the Raja bound himself to pay the British government 20 lacks of rupees, five to be paid immediately, and the remainder by instalments; and in consequence of the pacification, the country he before possessed was restored to him; but all that had been made over by the former treaty was resumed, on account of his treachery during the campaign against Holkar. As by the second article of the treaty, the British government became guarantee to the Raja for the security of his country against external enemies, it was agreed, that in case a misunderstanding arose between him and any other chief, he would, in the first instance, submit the cause of dispute to the British government, which would endeavour to settle it amicably; but if from the obstinacy of the opposite party, this was unattainable, the Raja was authorized to demand

aid from the British government, in the defence of whose dominions he engaged to assist against all invaders, and without whose concurrence to refuse the admisssion of any European into his service.

Since the above era the Raja's inclinations appear to have fluctuated considerably, as in 1806 he appeared cordially attached to the British government, and really sensible of the important protection afforded him by the subsisting treaties, whereas in 1814 he had become much estranged, and refused to admit a native envoy sent to reside at his court, although his very existence depended on its forbearance. It appears to be his course of policy to thwart and irritate the British government to the utmost verge of its forbearance, and to concede immediately when he finds a crisis impending. By his alliance with the British he enjoys wealth, importance, and tranquillity, being protected against all external annoyance, exempt from exaction or tribute, and completely despotic within his own territories. While M. Perron governed in Upper Hindostan, he made the petty chiefs instantly obey his most dictatorial mandate, but they have been treated by the British with such delicacy and liberality that their dependent condition has wholly disappeared, and with a natural perversity of disposition they think it unable to enforce, what it hesitates to command. In 1805, Mr. Metcalfe estimated the revenues of the Bhurtpoor Raja at nine lacks of rupees per annum, but they are probably now much nearer double that sum, as in 1818, owing to the long peace his territories had enjoyed, they appeared like a garden, when compared with the adjacent and much ravaged province of Rajpootana.—*(Lord Lake, Marquis Wellesley, Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Hunter, Franklin, &c. &c. &c.)*

AKOGUR.—A town in the province of Agra, 32 miles west from Bhurtpoor. Lat. 27° 16′ N. long. 76° 52′ E.

DEEG.—A town and fortress belonging to the Bhurtpoor Raja, in the Agra province, situated about 57 miles N. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 30′ N. long. 77° 12′ E. In 1760 this place was possessed and strongly fortified by Sooraj Mull, the Raja of the Jauts, but in 1776, it was taken from that tribe by Nudjiff Khan, after a siege of twelve months. It again became subject to the Jaut Raja of Bhurtpoor. In 1805, Lord Lake attacked Holcar's army which was encamped under the walls of Deeg, and defeated it with great slaughter. This battle proved fatal to Holcar's regular infantry and artillery, and the action at Futtehghur broke the spirit of his cavalry. Deeg was subsequently surrendered to the British army after a short and vigorous siege, and retained for some time as security for the good behaviour of the Bhurtpoor Raja, which being established, he was again put into possession. To preserve the town of Deeg from the violence of the torrents which pour from the hills during the rains, it is

necessary to keep in repair large embankments, which have been constructed to keep the water off the town.—*(Malcolm, Metcalfe, Franklin, &c.)*

GOSAULY.—A large town watered by canals drawn from the Laswaree river. Lat. 27° 30′ N. long. 76° 51′ E. 37 miles N. W. from Bhurtpoor. Six miles west of the town a new fort has been erected by the Macherry Raja.—*(Lieutenant White, &c.)*

LASWAREE.—A small village situated on a stream of the same name, 73 miles N. W. of Agra. Lat. 27° 33′ N. long. 76° 48′ E. On the 1st of November, 1803, a desperate battle was fought between the British army under Lord Lake, and that of Dowlet Row Sindia, in which the first gained a complete victory with the loss of 824 killed and wounded.

COMBHER.—At this place is manufactured the salt distinguished in Upper Hindostan by the name of Balumba, where large quantities of it are annually consumed. It is extracted from the saline water of wells in the vicinity, and is usually of a small grain, and preserved in pits. The town belongs to the Bhurtpoor Raja; and is situated 10 miles west from his capital. Lat. 27° 17′ N. long. 77° 14′ E.

BIANA *(Byana)*.—A town in the province of Agra, situated on the Ban Gunga river, 50 miles W. S. W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 26° 57′ N. long. 77° 8′ E. Biana preceded Agra as the capital of the province, it appearing from Abul Fazel that Sultan Secunder Lodi made Biana his metropolis, and kept his court here, while Agra was only a dependent village. It was first conquered by the Mahommedans, A. D. 1197. The town is still considerable, and contains many large stone houses, and the whole ridge of the hill is covered with the remains of buildings, among which is a fort containing a high pillar, conspicuous at a great distance. In 1790, the town and district belonged to Runjeet Singh, the Raja of Bhurtpoor, and with him it probably still remains.—*(Abul Fazel, Hunter, &c.)*

WEYRE.—A town belonging to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, situated on the high road from Jeypoor to Agra, 50 miles west from the latter city. Lat. 27° 2′ N. long. 77° 2′ E. This is a large town with a mud rampart round it, and a stone citadel within, on which some large guns are mounted.

SUROUT.—A large village in the province of Agra, surrounded with a stone wall, which has within a square mud fort with a double wall and ditch. Lat. 26° 51′ N. long. 77° E.

TEJARAH.—When Abul Fazel wrote, this district was of considerable importance, but it has latterly been but little noticed, and has almost lost its place in the map. It is now included within the British line of protection, but is thinly inhabited, and contains no town of consequence.

ALVAR OR MACHERRY.

This territory is situated in the north-western quarter of the Delhi province, and principally between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. In the Mahommedan histories it is occasionally named Mewat, and the inhabitants Mewaties, although this appellation ought only to have been applied to the more thievish portion of them. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Aloor, containing 43 mahals, measurement 1,662,012 begahs; revenue 39,832,234 dams. This circar furnishes 6,514 cavalry, and 42,020 infantry." The Alvar district is a hilly and woody tract, lying on the south-west of Delhi, and to the north-west of Agra, confining the low country along the western side of the river Jumna. Although this tract is situated in the centre of Hindostan, and within 25 miles of Delhi, its inhabitants have always been described as singularly savage and brutal, and robbers by profession, never to be subdued. In this last capacity, under the name of Mewaties, they were formerly taken into pay by the native chiefs, on account of their expertness in the arts of desolation, for the purpose of more effectually ravaging any country which happened to be the seat of war.

In modern times a new potentate has arisen, named the Raja of Macherry, within whose sway Alvar and several adjacent districts, equal to about 3,000 square miles, are now comprehended; but greatly intermingled with those belonging to the British government, and to the contiguous native chiefs. The chief towns in his dominions are Alvar, Macherry, Tejarah, Rajghur, and Alinuggur or Ghosawlee. Macherry gives its name to the country, and its chief is thence called the Macherry Raja, but Alvar is the real metropolis. Tejarah was formerly the capital of Mewat, and had like all old cities several pergunnahs annexed to it. It is now in ruins, but the fort, which is of some strength, is kept in repair to check the depredations of the Mewaties.

Ghosawlee or Alinuggur is a large town, and its fields are irrigated by canals from the Laswaree river. Six miles west of the town a new fort has been erected by the Raja, named Govindghur. Among other places of less note, although of great strength, belonging to the Raja, are the forts of Ramghur, Lechminghur, Peepul, and Kheree; the forts, also, of Kishenghur, Berodeh, Melakeree, Buodsujekee, Tamah, Bansor, and Shahjchanpoor, are of considerable strength. To these may be added the hill forts of Hajipoor, Hursuah, Nemranah, which, with the forts of Mudau, Raitee, and Bijwar, and the towns of Murdhewah, Acberpoor, Omraree, and the large villages of Gheelot and Seraee form that part of the Macherry Raja's country, named the Barrah Coterah.

The forts of Jendowlee and Titarpoor are strong, respecting those of Per-

taubhur, Ajibghur, Baharghur, Rajpoor, and others which lie to the west of Rajghur, little is known. Altogether the Macherry Raja is said to possess 42 forts, which number probably includes the common gurries, or native fortifications. The town of Kunkaree, which is said to be extensive, is also among the hills situated to the west of Rajghur.

The Laswaree river has its source in the Macherry country, about four miles west of Niranpoor, from whence it proceeds through Acberpoor ghaut by Mahoor and Bambolee to Laswaree. Near Malpoor an embankment has been constructed across the bed of the river, and the current is conducted by numerous water courses to the interior of the Raja's country. The former direction of the Laswaree stream was by Neano and Ketwaree through the Ploundah pass to Koh, where it was lost; but it now seldom passes Deeg, and could never, except during uncommonly heavy rains, have reached Bhurtpoor. In November, 1806, the stream of the Laswaree was only one foot deep, and the Raja being desirous of monopolizing the whole, without allowing any to proceed to the Bhurtpoor country, a dispute ensued, which could only be settled by the interference of the British government. Considering how hilly a great proportion of the Macherry terrirories are, they are tolerably well cultivated, and their local situation and resources enable the Raja materially to assist or to impede the incursions of the Maharattas from the south.

Row Raja Pertaub Singh, the father of the Raja who reigned in 1805, was a subject of the Jeypoor Raja's, and his manager at Macherry about the year 1780. He subsequently revolted from his master, and obtained a grant of lands in the Jeypoor country from Nudjiff Khan, with the title of Row Raja. When Nudjiff Khan was engaged in a war with the Raja of Bhurtpoor, Pertaub Singh wrested Alvar, the present capital, and other districts, from the Bhurtpoor state, and added them to his own. Some time afterwards he quarrelled with his patron Nudjiff Khan, and was deprived of all his possessions except the fortress of Luchmenghur, where he was besieged by Nudjiff Khan, but saved by the approach of the rainy season; and the latter being called elsewhere, Pertaub Singh remained in the government. Since that period he has maintained his authority by temporizing with the strongest party. In 1805, his revenues were estimated at seven lacks of rupees, and it was then said he discouraged cultivation, that his country might present fewer temptations to invaders, and to augment its difficulties built many forts.

In November, 1803, a treaty was concluded between General Lake on the part of the British government, and the Macherry Raja, by the conditions of which, the friends of the one party were to be considered as standing in the same relation with the other. The British engaged not to interfere in the internal

management of the Raja's country, nor demand any tribute, and the Raja undertook to assist the British government with his whole force, when their possessions were attacked. By this treaty the British guarranteed the security of the Raja's country against external enemies, on which account the Raja agreed, that if any misunderstanding should arise between him and any neighbouring chieftain, the cause of dispute should be submitted to the British government, which would endeavour to settle the matter amicably; but if from the obstinacy of the opposite party amicable terms could not be obtained, the Raja was authorized to demand aid from the British government, the expense of which to be defrayed by the Raja. With these terms the Raja appears to have been very well satisfied, as throughout the hazardous and energetic campaign of 1804, he continued a firm adherent of his allies; for which in 1805, he was rewarded by a considerable addition of territory, mostly resumed from the Raja of Bhurtpoor on account of his treachery.

The second range of mountains, commencing on the west of Padshapoor, to the Acberpoorghaut beyond Alvar, is inhabited by Mewaties. Tejarah is the capital of the Mewat country, which comprehends also the pergunnahs of Sonah, Jour, Tupookra, Kotelah, Hutteen, Firozepoor, Nugeenah, Poonahara, Kishenghur, Ismaelpoor, Bahadurpoor, Ramghur, Khoree, Paharee, Gopaulghur, Kaman, Alvar, Malakheere, and Gosawly. Supposing the Mewat country to contain 1,952 square miles; 465 may be considered as belonging to the British in 1807; to Ahmed Buksh Khan 263; to the Bhurtpoor Raja 304, and to the Raja of Macherry 921. On account of the turbulent disposition of its inhabitants, the influence of any chief among them is feeble, and the authority of the Macherry Raja but little attended to. In 1807, the predatory incursions of the Mewaties into the British territories became so daring and frequent, that no person could stir out of the military cantonments at Rewary, without an escort; and the high road from Delhi and Rewary was no longer practicable for the merchant or traveller, unless protected by a strong guard. A band of them (here named Cozauks) had the boldness to attack the town of Rewary, although within 3 miles of the military cantonments, where three battalions of infantry are usually stationed; but the Mewaty plunderers being all horse, infantry, however active, cannot coerce their incursions with sufficient rapidity.

Owing to the physical nature of the Mewat country, jungly, hilly, and abounding with defiles and fastnesses, the extirpation of these thieves was likely to be a work of great difficulty, if at all practicable. It became therefore extremely desirable to endeavour to eradicate the evil by measures of a conciliatory nature; for these people, although from time immemorial addicted to robbery and habits of plunder, are generally when trusted remarkably faithful. During

the power of the Delhi throne and after its decline, the only measures adopted to curb the Mewaties, were the utmost severity, harshness and cruelty. In order to distress them, they were prohibited from cultivating the vallies, where alone they could procure food, and their implements of husbandry were seized and destroyed. They were also, when apprehended, subjected to the most cruel punishments, and frequently experienced the dreadful doom of being immured alive between four walls, a practice which greatly prevailed during the period of the Gallo Maharatta power; but with such little effect, that while these districts were under the management of M. Perron, he maintained in them for five months of the year from 2 to 5 battalions of his troops, exclusive of sebandies, a species of local militia. This system of terror, as might have been expected, wholly failed, for, notwithstanding the impending tortures, the Mewaty outrages continually increased, and the peaceful part of the community were kept in a state of unceasing alarm and anxiety. In 1807, a correspondence was opened with some of their chiefs by Mr. Seton, then resident at Delhi, and some measures of a mild and conciliatory nature adopted, which although they have not extinguished, have so greatly repressed their proneness to rapine; that we now, comparatively, hear very little of Mewaty depredations.

In 1808, a dispute arose between the Rajas of Bhurtpoor and Macherry, relative to an embankment maintained in the country of the latter, which prevented the flowing of the Laswaree river into the country of the former, and consequently impeded the cultivation of certain lands belonging to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, which depended on that source for irrigation. On this occasion the British government as the friend of both parties interfered, and required the Macherry Raja to open the embankment, in conformity to his engagement concluded through the medium of Lord Lake in 1805.

In 1811, the Raja of Macherry was afflicted with a mental derangement, which after some time subsided; but was succeeded by a most unfortunate disposition to persecute his Mahommedan subjects, manifested by the most wanton acts of violence and outrage. The British resident at Delhi, on hearing of these proceedings, adverting to the political relations subsisting between the Raja and the British government, thought it his duty to address several letters of expostulation on the subject to the Raja; but these not having the desired effect, Lord Minto, then Governor General, was obliged to interfere. Confidential persons (natives) were in consequence dispatched to Alvar to ascertain the real condition of the Raja's mind, which was apprehended to be still not quite free from insanity. From their researches it appeared, that certain Mahommedan devotees had been mutilated by the Raja's order, and that several tombs and places of worship had been destroyed, which act this chief attempted to justify by recrimi-

nating on the Mahommedans, that they had destroyed Hindoo images and temples. After mutilating these devotees, the Raja was seized with the desire, no less savage than curious, of sending their noses and ears to Ahmed Buksh Khan, the chief of Firozepoor, a most meritorious partizan of the British government, who, on receipt of the pot containing the fragments, very properly forwarded it to the British resident at Delhi. Besides this exploit, having demolished a number of the most revered Mahommedan tombs, he loaded a multitude of asses and bullocks with the bones and ashes and had them transported out of his country, and ordered the sacred stones of the mosques near Alvar to be smeared with oil and sindhoor.

The British interposition on this occasion was exerted in so judicious and rational a manner, that the Raja was induced to revert to the unqualified toleration existing in his country before the perpetration of the late acts of violence. It was determined, however, that the Raja's general conduct should be observed, as it concerned the general interests of humanity, as well as the credit of the British government, to prevent the repetition of such barbarities, which were calculated to excite a spirit of sanguinary animosity between the Mahommedans and Hindoos, and create disturbances of all others the most liable to contagion, and in their result the most difficult to quell. The interference on this occasion was authorized, both by the great extent of territory bestowed on the Raja by the British government, and by the continuance of its powerful protection, which preserved his dominions from the dreadful evils which had befallen the neighbouring principalities of Jeypoor and Joudpoor. As illustrative of native politics it may be here mentioned, that along with the confidential agents, it was necessary to send an emissary well acquainted with the Raja's person, as otherwise his ministers, with the view of concealing his derangement, might have recourse to the artifice of substituting some other individual, not unlike him in stature and general appearance, the success of which would be favoured by the darkness of the apartment.

The above acts of religious phrenzy were not the only measures which brought the intellectual restoration of the Raja under suspicion, for towards the end of the same year he had the gratuitous folly to become surety to the Patan chief, Mahommed Shah Khan, on the part of Khooshaly Ram (formerly prime minister to the Raja of Jeypoor), for the payment of the one lack and a half of rupees per month, on account of a body of troops to be furnished by the former to the latter, for the service of the Jeypoor state, until the expelled minister (Khooshaly Ram) should be again placed at the head of affairs. This transaction was totally incompatible with the spirit of the relations subsisting between the British government and the Macherry state, by the conditions of which, the British government

having guaranteed the integrity of its dominions, the latter was placed in a state of dependence, and virtually precluded from interfering in the concerns of other chiefs and states, unless with the consent of the protecting power. For it appeared evident, that if the Raja were at liberty to enter into engagements with foreign powers, or concern himself in their disputes and intrigues, the British government might be involved in serious political altercations, and eventually placed in a hostile attitude by the uncontrouled acts of the Raja. Situated as the parties were, the duty of protection necessarily implied a right of controul over all proceedings of the protected party which might have a tendency to compel the active exercise of that duty; and it was wholly inconsistent with the existing political relations, that a dependent state should be at liberty to form engagements with other powers, and to transfer the guarantee of the protecting power to concerns in which it had not participated.

By this act of the Raja he pledged the security of the British government to the agreement between Khooshaly Ram and Mahommed Shah Khan, thereby rendering it an instrument of public evil, and of injustice to a friendly state, or forced it to engage in a cause of doubtful equity and unprofitable exertion, since in the event of the Raja's disinclination or inability to fulfil the obligations he had entered into, (a circumstance not less probable than the failure of Khooshaly Ram in the performance of his engagement,) the Patan chief would naturally be disposed to enforce the satisfaction of his claim. In this event, the interference of the British government would become necessary, either to compel the payment of the money, or to protect the Raja against the arms of the claimant, and would thus be compelled, through the folly of the Raja, either to contribute to the support of a military Patan adventurer, aiming at the subjugation of a friendly state, or to employ its military power in a cause of dubious justice, and where the interests of the British government were in no manner concerned.

This preposterous engagement, as might have been foreseen, was subsequently broken, and the agent of Mahommed Shah Khan, residing at Delhi, appealed to the resident for the recovery of the sum due to his master for the time that had elapsed, but the application was immediately rejected, and the chief informed, that the original agreement was altogether incompatible with the political relations subsisting between the Macherry Raja and the British government. With the view also of preventing in future a similar misconception of his duties, and to render more clear the treaty of 1803, a positive engagement was procured from the Raja in 1812, binding himself not to enter into negociations, or conclude arrangements of any kind, with foreign powers, without the knowledge and consent of the British government previously obtained. In times still more recent,

the Macherry Raja finding himself in the vicinity of the Jeypoor state, which was torn by civil faction and external warfare, endeavoured to avail himself of its misfortunes, and to aggrandize himself at its expense. He in consequence seized on some of its forts and villages, but the British government interfered and obliged the intruder to restore what he had taken, and symptoms of hesitation appearing, he was fined for delaying instant obedience to the order.—*(Public MS. Documents, Lieut. White, Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

ALVAR *(Alor)*.—Although Macherry gives its name to the dominions of the Row Raja, this town may be considered as his real capital. It is situated at the foot of a very high hill, and is strongly fortified. On the summit of this hill is the fortress, which contains several tanks, and there is besides a small shallow jeel to the south of the town. The Macherry Raja generally resides here, but his family at Rajghur, a strong fort situated at the re-entering angle of some hills, on the top of which are some works for the further protection of the place. The town stands in lat. 27° 44′ N. long. 76° 32′ E. 75 miles S. S. W. from Delhi.—*(Lieut. White, &c.)*

URSANA.—A town in the Agra province, 30 miles south from Alvar. Lat. 27° 22′ N. long. 76° 25′ E.

BERODEH.—A town in the province of Agra, 20 miles E. from Alvar. Lat. 27° 44′ N. long. 76° 50′ E.

BEERAT.—A town in the province of Agra, 60 miles N. N. E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 42′ N. long. 75° 59′ E.

COTELAH.—A town in the Agra province, 46 miles N. N. E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 28′ N. long. 76° 2′ E.

MACHERRY.—This place stands six miles east of Rajghur, being separated from it by a range of hills, and was formerly of considerable extent, but at present there are few inhabited houses, and the rest are either ruinous or in a state of rapid of decay. It gives its name to the Macherry principality, and is situated about 60 miles N. E. from the city of Jeypoor, in lat. 27° 31′ N. long. 76° 22′ E.—*(Lieut. White, &c.)*

FIROZEPOOR *(Firozpur)*.—This is the capital of the country bestowed on Ahmed Buksh Khan, whose territories comprehend the Mewaty pergunnahs of Firozepoor, Nugeena, and Poonahara, with the talooks of Beechor and Sakras. He also holds in jaghire, at a fixed rent in perpetuity, the small pergunnah of Laharoo, belonging to the Macherry Raja, and in the Shekawutty country. It stands in lat. 27° 58′ N. long. 76° 39′ E. 55 miles S. S. W. from the city of Delhi, and is surrounded by a stone wall. Pynungeon, a small town on the eastern side of the hills, separating Poonaharah from Nugeena, was once of considerable

note, but is now in ruins. Nugeena is a small town with a strong gurry. Poonahara is a good sized town with a gurry in its centre, and at Beechor is a strong fort.—*(Lieut. White, &c.)*

NARNOUL.—An ancient district in the north west quarter of the Agra province, situated between the 28th and 29th degrees of north lat. and in 1582, described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Circar Narnoul, containing 17 mahals; measurement 2,080,046 begahs; revenue 50,046,711 dams. This circar furnishes 7520 cavalry, and 37,220 infantry." This is the frontier town of the Jeypoor Raja, and is situated in lat. 28° 5′ N. long. 75° 52′ E. 86 miles S. W. from the city of Delhi. It is a place of considerable antiquity, but at present greatly reduced in size, being only about one mile in length, with a small nullah or water course through the centre. In 1805 government received an offer of 147,000 rupees for the pergunnahs of Kanoon, Kautic, and Narnoul, situated between the territories of the Macherry Raja and the Shekawutty country.—*(Lieut. White, Metcalfe, &c.)*

SENGAUNA.—This is a handsome town, built of stone, situated on the top of a hill of purplish rock about 600 feet high, 100 miles S. W. from Delhi. Lat. 28° 6′ N. long. 75° 36′ E.

CANOON. This town is situated about 80 miles W. S. W. from the city of Delhi, in lat. 28° 18′ N. long. 75° 51′ E. and during the war of 1804, was occupied by a detachment from the British army. On approaching Canoon by the Delhi road the appearance of the desert commences. Three miles to the east of it are sand hills, which at first are covered with bushes, but afterwards degenerate to naked piles of loose sand, rising one above the other like the waves of the sea, and marked on the surface by the wind like drifted snow. To the west the country becomes more and more arid, and ten miles from Canoon in that direction, is the limit of the British dependencies in that quarter, after which the Rajpoot district of Shekawutty commences.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

ALIGHUR DISTRICT.

This district is situated in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, about the 28th degree of north latitude. To the north it has the district of Merut or South Saharunpoor; to the south those of Furruckabad and Agra; on the east it has Furruckabad and Bareily; and on the west Agra and the Delhi reserved territories. The two boundary streams are the Ganges and Jumna, and in the interior are several water courses or rivulets, which during the rains have a current of water, but for the rest of the year are dry, or have their moisture abstracted by the peasantry for the purposes of irrigation. The principal towns are Alighur, Cowl, Hatras, Moorsaun, and Anopsheher.

Prior to 1817 this district suffered greatly from the contiguity of independent states, inhabited by predatory and ungovernable tribes, who not only infested the country by their inroads, but afforded an asylum to the native criminals of the British territories. At that period also there were within the district the independent states of Hatras, Moorsaun, and Awah, which had been long distinguished as the resort of Thugs, Buddicks, and other depredators, whose atrocities attained such a pitch, that in 1817 it required a regular army to quell them, by the siege and capture of Hatras, and the surrender of Moorsaun without resistance. The Alighur district is of great extent, and includes 38 police stations, some of which are 50 miles from the residence of the magistrate. The soil of Alighur is fertile, and very productive under proper cultivation; the inhabitants are also of a description considerably superior to the Bengalese and other more eastern tribes, but proportionately turbulent and difficult to govern. In 1813-14, the jumma, or assessment to the land revenue, amounted to 3,152,309 rupees. After the capture of Hatras and Moorsaun, 17 other lesser forts were destroyed and razed to the ground. The average number of prisoners confined in jail throughout the year 1813-14 was 438.—*(Blunt, &c. &c. &c.)*

Alighur *(Alighar)*.—This town gives its name to the modern district, and stands in lat. 27° 56′ N. long. 77° 59′ E. 53 miles N. from the city of Agra. The fortress of Alighur, one of the strongest in Hindostan, was stormed in 1803, by the army under General Lake, and taken after a most obstinate resistance, during which the assailants sustained great slaughter. It was then one of Dowlet Row Sindia's principal depots for military stores, the whole of which fell into the possession of the captors. The number of guns captured on this occasion was as follows: of brass, guns of various calibres, 33; iron ditto, 60; brass howitzers, 4; mortars, 2; iron wall-pieces, 182; making a total of 281: besides which, there were found in the fort, large supplies of powder and shot, a number of new arms with accoutrements, a considerable stock of regimentals, consisting of blue jackets with red facings, made after the French fashion, and lastly, some tumbrils containing Spanish dollars. On account of its importance it was subsequently selected as the head quarters of a district, and a civil establishment was appointed for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue, subordinate to the Bareily division of the court of circuit and appeal.

Cowl, or Coel *(Covil)*.—When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, Coel was a town of great importance, and the capital of a large district, but since then its consequence has greatly diminished. It stands in lat. 27° 54′ N. long. 78° E. 50 miles N. by E. from Agra.

Bijeyghur.—A fortified town in the province of Agra, 20 miles S. S. E.

from Alighur. Lat. 27° 48′ N. long. 78° 8′ E. This place was taken by a British detachment in 1803, after a considerable resistance on the part of the zemindar.

SECUNDRA *(Secundra, Alexandria)*.—A town in the province of Agra, 44 miles N. E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 42′ N. long. 78° 16′ E.

HATRAS *(Hathras)*.—This town is situated about 31 miles N. of Agra, in lat. 27° 37′ N. long. 75° 58′ E. The fort is an oblong, its long diameter running nearly from west to east, measuring 1600 yards round the glacis. The ditch is 120 feet wide and 85 deep, and the body of the place 4 or 500 yards in compass. In some places the scarp is perpendicular from above, in others it has been excavated so as to form extensive subterranean dwellings, with windows opening into the body of the great ditch, into which apartments the zemindar's family frequently resorted during the intensity of the hot season. The Cutterah, or fortified town, lies west by north of the fort, about 700 yards distant. While under the Maharatta government, Hatras was a considerable mart for the cotton produced in the Agra province, which was sent from hence by an easy land carriage of 100 miles to Furruckabad on the Ganges, and from thence by water to Mirzapoor.

Thakoor Boore Singh, zemindar of Hatras and Biswan, left two sons; the oldest Newal Singh, the father of Hurkishen, the late Talookdar of Biswan, and Dyaram, who, in the absence of his elder brother, obtained and retained possession of the territory of Hatras. The forts and estates of Hatras and Moorsaun, are situated within the district of Alighur; and formed part of the country ceded by Dowlet Row Sindia at the close of the year 1803; but from consideration for the former habits and prejudices of these persons, the British government forbore to exercise its right of insisting on the immediate demolition of their forts and reduction of their large military establishment. Similar considerations also induced government to sanction an adjustment of revenue with these chiefs on the most liberal terms, and to postpone the introduction of the Bengal judicial system. From that period, however, the chiefs of Hatras and Moorsaun systematically pursued a system directed to the establishment of total independence, protected criminals of all descriptions, and imprisoned British subjects in their strong holds for the purpose of extortion. The mint established at Hatras was also suspected of being the source for the coinage of the base silver and copper money, with which the neighbouring districts were overspread. Some of these observations applied, but in a lesser degree to the Talookdars of Awa and Biswan, who appeared to look up to Dyaram of Hatras, and to regulate their intercourse with the officers of government by his example.

Repeated warnings and admonitions having failed to produce any permanent effect, a strong army was assembled, the destination of which does not appear

to have struck Dyaram, until the 10th of February, 1817, when various detachments of troops from different quarters were seen approaching the fortress, which was invested by Major General Marshall on the 12th of that month. These preparatory arrangements being accomplished, Dyaram was informed, that it was not the intention of government, if he submitted voluntarily, to make any alteration in the very liberal terms on which he held his zemindary, nor to resume his jaghire, nor inquire into his past misconduct. He was also apprized, that he should be permitted to retain all his private property, to occupy the houses and buildings in the interior of the fort, and that he would receive a reasonable compensation for the ordnance, arms, and military stores in his possession, with a sufficient number of armed men to support his dignity. The language of Dyaram in reply, at an early period, justified a suspicion that he had no serious intention of peaceably complying with the orders of government, and a subsequent breach of faith left no doubt that his only object was to gain time, in order to strengthen the defences of the city, and to make the preparations which the sudden approach of the army had prevented. Warning was in consequence given to the inhabitants of the Cutterah, or fortified town, advising them of an impending siege, and recommending them to retire with their families, which admonition was by many of the peaceable inhabitants eagerly taken advantage of. On the 22d of February the batteries were opened against the Cutterah, which was evacuated on the 24th, and the breaching and mortar batteries being completed, the bombardment commenced about eight o'clock in the morning, and was continued with great effect for 15 hours. The practice from the batteries was admirable, and at five in the evening a lucky shell blew up the enemies magazine with a most terrific explosion, enveloping the whole fort in smoke and ruin. This circumstance, added to the destruction carried into the place from the increasing fire from 42 mortars, frightened Dyaram, who about eleven o'clock at night sallied out with his horse and two sons, and escaped across the Jumna. The loss on the part of the British troops was quite inconsiderable, but the garrison suffered very severely, especially during the bombardment, and in their attempt to quit the fort 900 were made prisoners.

Hatras being thus subdued, Raja Bhugwunt Singh immediately surrendered the strong fort of Moorsaun, and accepted the terms which had been unavailingly offered to Dyaram, and the effect of this example doubtless operated to facilitate the execution of the arrangements with the Talookdars of Awa and Biswan. The beneficial influence of these events was not confined to the improvement of the police, and to the more effectual administration of civil and criminal justice within the estates in question, but extended throughout all the north-western provinces, where it tended finally to suppress that spirit of turbulence and

resistance to the public authority, generated by the weakness and vices of the prior native governments.—*(Public MS. Documents, Civil and Military, &c. &c.)*

Moorsaun.—Until 1817 this was an independent zemindary, and a notorious resort of Thugs and Buddicks, two tribes much addicted to robbery, who here found an asylum for their persons, and a market for their booty. These plunderers seldom make attacks in the country adjacent to their ordinary place of residence; on the contrary, they separate into small parties, and proceed in various disguises to a considerable distance, where they unite and attack depots of treasure, or the houses of wealthy merchants. For the purpose of procuring intelligence of treasure, and opportunities of plunder, they scatter their emissaries over Upper Hindostan; but most frequently direct their attention to the province of Benares, which is much infested by Buddicks from this remote quarter. On some occasions these miscreants have been known to join a traveller on the road, and having first stupified him by inducing him to eat sweet cakes and confectionary, containing seeds of the datura, subsequently plunder him at their leisure. The town of Moorsaun stands in lat. 27° 36′ N. long. 77° 50′ E. about 29 miles north of the city of Agra, and was formerly strongly fortified, but in 1817, after the capture of Hatras, a very unsatisfactory reply having been received from the zemindar Bhugwunt Singh, the cavalry of the besieging army were put in motion for the purpose of investing his fort; but subsequently, he acquiesced in the wishes of government and surrendered, when his strong hold was dismantled, but all his landed and personal property conceded to him.—*(Blunt, &c. &c.)*

Maat.—A town in the province of Agra, 37 miles N. by W. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 39′ N. long. 77° 33′ E.

Sasnee *(Sasani)*.—A town in the province of Agra, 38 miles N. by E. from the city of Agra. Lat. 27° 43′ N. long. 78° E. The zemindar, being refractory, was expelled from this place in March, 1803, after a desperate resistance.

Nho *(or Nouh)*.—This town is situated N. by W. from the city of Agra, in lat. 27° 51′ N. long. 77° 31′ E. and has long been noted for the manufacture of the salt distinguished by the name of salumba, and much used in the adjacent provinces to the east. In conducting the manufacturing process, after the water is drawn from the wells containing the saline springs, it is poured into reservoirs, where it is allowed to remain 8 or 10 days to settle, after which it is successively drawn off into a second and third reservoir, until it is clarified and sufficiently evaporated, which is usually the case in two or three weeks. The jewassah shrub is then thrown in, to hasten the crystallization, which takes place in about a fortnight, when the shrub is taken out, and the salt separated

from it. The salt which has not adhered to it is found at the bottom of the reservoir, and is of a smaller grain.

In the financial year, 1215 (1808-9), the stock on hand amounted to 880,000 maunds, being the produce of between 3 and 4 years. A certain portion of the quantity belongs to the ryots, or peasantry, and is purchased from them by government. The price at the wells is from 2 to 5 annas per maund, according to quality, for exportation, and 8 annas per maund for local consumption on the right bank of the Jumna, the duty on the importation into the Doab being the principal profit accruing to government. The quantity annually required for consumption and exportation prior to 1809, averaged about 2 lacks and a half, but a considerable increase was anticipated in consequence of the general tranquillity, and the opening of new marts.—*(J. T. Brown, E. W. Blunt, &c.)*

TUPPEL.—A town in the Alighur district, 48 miles S. by E. from Delhi. Lat. 28° 3′ N. long. 77° 27′ E.

CUMOONAH.—A zemindar's mud fort in the province of Agra, district of Alighur, which in consequence of the refractory conduct of the possessor, was in 1807 besieged by a strong British force. On the 19th of November a breach was effected, and an attempt made to carry the place by storm, but the assailants were driven back with great slaughter, the loss of men and officers exceeding that sustained in many pitched battles. The impression, however, made on the garrison was such, that they evacuated the strong hold during the night. This description of mud forts, when well defended, generally cause a greater loss to the besiegers than is sustained in the attack of more regular and apparently stronger fortifications.

ANOPSHEHER *(Anapa Sheher)*.—This town is situated on the west side of the Ganges, about 68 miles E. S. E. from Delhi. Lat. 28° 23′ N. long. 78° 8′ E.

The town of Anopsheher is contained within a strong mud wall; and though not of great extent is thickly inhabited, the houses being a mixture of brick and mud buildings. The surrounding wall is in some parts 20 and 30 feet thick. Formerly in this quarter of Hindostan, when a zemindar's rent was demanded, he betook himself with all his effects to his fort, and there held out until overcome by a superior military force; frequently expending much more than the sum demanded in resisting the claim.—*(Tennant, &c.)*

RAMGHAUT.—A town in the Agra province, situated on the west bank of the Ganges, which in the dry season is here fordable. Lat. 28° 10′ N. long. 78° 12′ E. 17 miles S. S. E. from Anopsheher.

THE PROVINCE OF DELHI.

THE imperial province of Delhi is situated principally between the 28th and 31st degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Lahore, and northern Hindostan west of the Goggra; to the south by Agra and Ajmeer; on the east it has Oude, and Northern Hindostan; and on the west Ajmeer and Lahore. In length it may be estimated at 240 miles, by 180 the average breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—

"The soubah of Delhi is in the third climate. The length from Pulwul to Ludehauneh, on the banks of the Sutuleje, is 165 coss; and the breadth from circar Rewary to the mountains of Kemaoon, is 140 coss; and again from Hissar to Khyzirabad it is 130 coss broad. On the east lies Agra; on the north-east quarter is Khyrabad, in the province of Oude; to the north are mountains; on the south the boundaries are Agra and Ajmeer, and Ludehauneh confines it on the west. The principal rivers are the Ganges and Jumna, both of which have their sources in this soubah, and there are also many lesser streams. The climate is very temperate. Most of the lands are inundated during the rains, and some places produce three harvests in the year. The rhinoceros is frequently hunted in circar Sembhel. This soubah contains eight circars, viz. 1, Delhi; 2, Budayoon; 3, Kemaun; 4, Sembhel; 5, Saharunpoor; 6, Rewary; 7, Hissar Ferozeh; 8, Sirhind. These circars are divided into 232 pergunnahs; the measured lands are 28,546,816 begahs; the amount of the revenue 601,615,555 dams; out of which 33,075,739 are seyurghal."

In the above description there are more inaccuracies than in most others by Abul Fazel, which is remarkable considering the central position of the Delhi province, and that it had so long contained the capital of the empire. The principal modern geographical and political subdivisions are the following:

1. The assigned territories
2. Rohilcund
3. District of Bareily
4. District of Mooradabad
5. District of Shahjehanpoor
6. Rampore Jaghire
7. District of North Saharunpoor
8. District of South Saharunpoor or Merut
9. Hurrianna
10. Sirhind
11. Pattialah and various petty Seik states.

The British possessions west of the Jumna, before the incorporation of the

Hurrianna, reached north to the village of Koeah, lat. 29° 48′, in the pergunnah of Kurnal; the boundary line from thence to the Jumma Mosque in Delhi was at Gohanna, 36 British miles distant from the river; but the average breadth of the British territory north of Delhi and west of the Jumna, was only 26 miles. From Agra to Delhi the greatest extent of the British territory west of that river, is 68 miles, to the small village Neicho on the western limits of Rewary; but excluding that projection, the average breadth of the British territory between Delhi and Agra is only 24 miles.

The Seik districts of Jeend and Kitul are much overgrown with trees, being the north-west part of the great jungle commencing in the Soneput pergunnah. The country is in consequence but thinly inhabited, and the land, which is low and apparently fertile, but indifferently cultivated. The territory west of Jheend and Kitul is free from jungle, the soil hard and fertile, and almost destitute of towns or villages. Beyond the Guggur the soil is heavy, and the ground rises. North and east of Kitul, the country is very fertile, being watered by the Guggur, Sereswati, and several smaller water courses.

In 1808, the zemindary of Kurnal was held in jaghire by Mahommedy Khan; Kunkoodee and Bhewana by the Seik chief Bhung Singh; the pergunnah of Gohanna was the joint jaidad of that person, and of the other Seik chief, Bhow Laul Singh. Pergunnah Fureedabad (in which is situated the fortress of Balamgur), and pergunnah Palee Pukul, were the jaghire of the Jaut Raja Amood Singh;

Samalka, the jaghire of Mirza Ashruf Beg;

Soak, Sersuah, Chatta, Khuree, and Shergur, composed the jaghires of Sindia's relatives.

The following zemindaries were held at a fixed rent:

Pulwul, by Morteza Khan;

Kooral, by Mahommed Khan Afreedee;

Hutteen, by Fyzoolah Beg;

Nudjiffghur, by Bukshee Bhowanny Sunker.

In the large division of Rewary, a considerable extent of land was held at a fixed rent, and but few jaghires.

In the Mewatty pergunnahs of Bhorah, Sonah, Nooh, and Kotelah, there were no lands held at a fixed rent.

The pergunnahs of Paniput, Soneput, Gunover, and Palam, were partly composed of jaghires, and partly of Nizamut lands; among those of the first mentioned description was the jaghire of Bala Bhye, the daughter of Madhajee Sindia.

The town of Kunjpoora, belonging to Rehmut Khan, with the villages of

Jherabe, Mahmoodpoor, Khyraghur, and Nullee, were originally attached to the Budowly pergunnah, and are situated to the east of the Jumna. The pergunnah of Indree, which is of great extent, formerly belonged to the Kunjpoora chieftain, who in 1808 still retained possession of the town and of a few villages only; the remainder having been seized upon by the Seik chiefs Bungah Singh, and Goordut Singh.

The country given to Nijabut Ali Khan and others of the Baraitche family, contains the pergunnahs of Jhehur, Dadree, Kanoon, Badlee, Patoudee, Bawal, Kantee, and Bahadurghur; and the whole is supposed to yield a revenue of eleven lacks of rupees per annum. The three towns first named are large open towns, tolerably well inhabited; on the west of Kanoon is a small but strong fort, and Dadree has a fort on its north. Patoudee, Bawal, Badlee, and Kantee, are small towns. Twelve miles west of Kanoon is the small zemindary of Madaghur, famous for a strong fort of the same name, which was a den of thieves until destroyed by a British detachment.

The small pergunnah of Jarsee belongs to the Begum Somroo, is inhabited by Goojurs, and tolerably well cultivated. A small nullah, or water course, which issues from the hills near the Cootub Minar, runs with great velocity on the north of Padshapoor, and falls into the jeel or shallow lake of Nudjiffabad.

The eastern portion of Kitul, and the western of Kurnal, Phasul Negdoo, Beras, Joudlah, Joolmanah, Assund, Baree, and Jhakolie, is called the Nurduk country. The inhabitants are Rungurs, and at times collect in considerable numbers and sweep the cattle from the neighbouring villages.

The commencement of the long range of hills, extending through the Macherry dominions towards Jeypoor, is at Wuzeerabad, a small village on the banks of the Jumna, a little way above Delhi. The first range as far as Sonah, with the pergunnahs of Palum, Nudjiffghur, Padshapoor, Fureedabad, and Palee Pakul, is inhabited chiefly by Goojurs. The second range, commencing on the west of Padshapoor to the Acberpoor ghaut beyond Alvar, by Mewaties.

The rivers Gaggur, Sereswati, and Chittung, have their sources in the hills near Nahan. The first proceeds by Shahabad, Koram, and Moonuk, towards Bhatneer. The banks are in general steep, and it has a small current of water. The Sereswati flows by Mustaphabad and Thanesur, and joins the Gaggur near Moonuk. The former course of the Chittung, which is supposed to have been brought from the hills by Feroze Shah, was by Ladooah, Dalchoor, Jeend, Hansi and Hissar, to Bahardaran, 48 miles W. by S. from Hissar, where it was lost in the sands; but the channel of the river is not now to be traced further than Jeend, and from the scantiness of the stream, the water during the dry season seldom reaches beyond Dulchoor.

Respecting the Shah Nehr, and the Nehr Behesht, scarcely any thing is known but the names. The Saban, Kasoontee, and Dhahan nullahs, or water courses, have no water except during the rains, yet in some places, owing to the light nature of the soil, their beds are spread out a mile in breadth. The Sabee and Kasoontee fall into the jeel or shallow lake at Killah, which communicates with the Nudjiff jeel, and ultimately with the Jumna above Delhi. The Dahan is wholly absorbed near Dadree. The sources of these nullahs are not known.

The road from Mathura to Rewary is either by Padshapoor or Kishenghur, between which places (a distance of 40 miles) there is no pass through which guns and tumbrils could proceed; although there are several passes, such as Sonah, through which horse and unladen camels may penetrate. The ghaut, or pass, at Kishenghur is cut out of the solid rock, on the sides of which are some works for its defence. From the cantonments at Rewary to Muttra by this route, is about 111 miles; and by the Padshapoor route about 113. Respecting the passes of Acberpoor and Hindolee, little is known.

THE ASSIGNED TERRITORIES.

On the expulsion of the Maharattas from Upper Hindostan in 1803, a large portion of territory was assigned for the support of the royal household, consisting of the following pergunnahs which were leased on a triennial settlement:—

	1st year.	2d year.	3d year.
Rewary	108,000	120,500	135,501
Noh, Hateen, Tizarah, Bhora, Tapookra, Sona, Kollah, Indore	124,000	135,625	148,339
Hooral, Pulwul, Palee, Pankul	85,003	95,628	107,581
Alaverdi	12,501	13,500	14,500
Nugeena	16,000	17,000	18,062
Ferozepoor, Sangnees	5,001	5,001	5,001
Munsoby	3,447	3,447	3,447
	353,952	390,701	432,432

Rewary is one of the pergunnahs which was given to the Raja of Bhurtpoor in October, 1803, and which were afterwards resumed in consequence of his treachery. Noh, Huteen, Tizarah, &c. are situated in Mewat, and were also lands given to the Raja of Bhurtpoor and resumed. Hooral and Pulwul are on the Jumna, adjacent to the district of Agra. Alaverdi is in the neighbourhood of Delhi. Nugeena, Sangnees, and Ferozepoor, are in Mewat, were given to the Raja of Bhurtpoor, and resumed. The remaining pergunnahs of the assigned territory viz. Paniput, Soneput, Gunnoor, and Samalka, were estimated to yield 68,704 rupees in the fusly or financial year, 1213 (1806-7). These pergunnahs are situated to the north of Delhi, and it is said, in conjunction with Kurnal, yielded

above 12 lacks of rupees annually, during the existence of the great canal, excavated in the reign of Jehangire, by Ali Merdan Khan, a Persian nobleman of his court. Paniput was at that period a place of great importance, and an emporium of trade from the Punjab, Cashmere, Cabul, Persia, and all the western countries. The commercial intercourse was then active and extensive; but on account of the long distracted state of the country, prior to 1805, had nearly ceased to exist.

For the pergunnahs of Kanoon, Kautic, and Narnoul, government, in 1805, received an offer of 147,000 rupees per annum. These tracts are situated between the territories of the Macherry Raja, and the Shekawutty country. The pergunnahs named below were estimated on the average of 5 years, as follows:

Havilee Palum . . .	55,000	Poonahara	18,000
Bhewana }	21,002	Bhawul	14,000
Mudhautee } .		Village of Majaul	2951
Nudjiffghur	34,000	Kishenagur and dependencies	70,000

The last is a hill fortress of some strength and importance, built by Sooraj Mull the celebrated Jaut Raja, and ancestor of the Bhurtpoor Raja. Within the assessed territories are several jaghires and jaidads; the principal holders in 1805 were—the Nabob Bhumboo Khan; Nabob Nijabet Ali Khan, and family; the Seik chiefs Bhaug Singh, Laul Singh, &c. &c.

The revenue of the assigned territories, under the superintendance of the resident at Delhi, continued so gradually to increase, that in 1814, they were not only sufficient to defray the expense of supporting the royal family of Delhi, but left a considerable surplus applicable to general purposes.—

Jumma, or land assessment, of the assigned territories

in 1811-12	994,944	
1812	1,039,560	
1813	1,256,505	(£145,754)

A further increase may be looked for on the falling in of certain jaghires by the death of the existing incumbents, and especially by the renewal of the canal of Ali Merdan Khan, now choked up and useless; but in the reconstruction of which the credit of the British government is implicated. There is no portion of Hindostan susceptible of greater improvement by irrigation than the province of Delhi, and it is probable that an immense extent of moving sand, at present not merely unproductive, but threatening to overwhelm the neighbouring lands, might be again brought under cultivation. In ancient times several rivers traversed the north western quarter, which have long ceased to flow: and one of them now lost, the Sereswati, was of such magnitude, as to mark a geographical region in the books of Hindoo mythological history. With little trouble

or expense when compared with the benefit, these rivers might be again led into their former channels, and much valuable moisture, which now flows undisturbed through the Sutuleje and Jumna to the sea, might be arrested in its progress, and made subservient to the purposes of husbandry. The objections to these projected improvements are the difficulty of conducting a stream across a territory so intersected by deep ravines, and the political state of the country, a considerable portion being held by petty native states, in the improvement of which the British nation has no direct interest. The canal of Ali Merdan Khan, being wholly within the conquered territories, is exempt from the last objection, and the increased fertility of the tract it penetrates would more than compensate for the expenditure. In 1817, it appears to have seriously attracted the attention of the Bengal government, as an intelligent officer of Engineers was deputed to survey the former channel, and report on the practicability of its reconstruction. In A. D. 1358, Feroze III. excavated a canal from the Sutuleje to the Jedjer, 100 miles in length, and dug many other canals and conduits, which in the confusion of the succeeding events were neglected, and have long been so completely choked up that all traces of them have disappeared.

Compared with Bengal and the Company's old provinces Delhi is but thinly inhabited, and probably does not on the whole exceed eight millions, consisting of a mixture of Hindoos, Mahommedans and Seiks, the latter religion being prevalent in the north-western quarter. The principal towns are Delhi, Bareily, Pillibeet, Shahjehanpoor, Rampoor, Moradabad, Anopshehr, Merut, Seerdhuna, Saharunpoor, Patiallah, Ambahlah, and Sirhind, under which heads, and the territorial subdivisions, respectively, further local details will be found. The districts under the immediate superintendance and jurisdiction of the British government, are in a state of the most rapid improvement in population, revenue and cultivation, but the prosperity of the country subject to the native chiefs is greatly retarded by their increasing feuds and defective police. Being however protected from external annoyance by their great ally, their territories, in spite of the internal obstacles, have also experienced a considerable amelioration, and yield to their possessors much larger revenues and increased resources generally. Many parts of the province, however, still display immense tracts of naked sterility, but little interrupted either by trees, cultivation, or inhabitants. —*(Lieut. White, Metcalfe, Abul Fazel, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE CITY OF DELHI *(in Sanscrit Indraprastha.)*

The ancient capital of the Patan and Mogul empires, situated in lat. 28° 41′ N. long. 77° 5′ E. During the splendid era of Delhi, according to popular tradition, it covered a space of 20 square miles, and the ruins at present occupy nearly

as great an extent; but notwithstanding its great antiquity, and the long period of time during which it has ranked as the first city of Hindostan, there is nothing in its locality particularly attractive, the adjacent soil being rather of a sterile than fruitful description, and the river unnavigable during the dry season for boats of any considerable burthen. Under these disadvantages, however, it had become a city of great fame and magnitude, prior to the Mahommedan invasion, when it was distinguished in the Hindoo books of mythological history, by the appellation of Indraprasth. In the year 1631, the Emperor Shah Jehan founded the city of new Delhi, on the west bank of the Jumna, which he named Shahjehanabad. It is about seven miles in circumference, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of brick and stone, but without artillery. The city has seven gates, viz. Lahore gate, Ajmeer gate, Turkoman gate, Delhi gate, Mohur gate, Cabul gate, and Cashmere gate. Near the Ajmeer gate is a madrissa, or college, of great extent, built by Ghazi ud Deen, the grandson of Nizam ul Mulk; but it is now shut up and without inhabitants.

Within the city of Jehanabad, or new Delhi, are the remains of many splendid palaces, which formerly belonged to the great Omrahs of the empire. Among the largest are those of Kummer ud Deen Khan, Ali Merdan Khan, Ghazi ud Deen Khan, and Sefdar Jung. There are, also, the garden of Coodseah Begum, mother of the Emperor Mahommed Shah; the palace of Saadet Khan, and that of Sultan Darah Shekoh. They are all surrounded with high walls, and take up a considerable space of ground, as they comprehend baths, stables for all sorts of animals, and music galleries, besides an extensive seraglio. In this quarter of Delhi are many very fine mosques, still in good repair, the chief of which is the Jumma Musjeed, or great cathedral, which was begun by Shah Jehan in the fourth, and completed in the tenth year of his reign, after an expenditure of ten lacks of rupees. Not far from the palace is the mosque of Rowshun ud Dowlah, where in 1739, Nadir Shah sat and saw the massacre of the unfortunate inhabitants; since which period this part of the town has been but thinly inhabited. Besides these there are forty other mosques, but of an inferior size.

The modern city of Delhi contains many good houses, mostly of brick. The streets are in general narrow, with the exception of two; the first leading from the palace to the Delhi gate, which is broad and spacious, and had formerly an aqueduct along its whole extent; the second from the palace to the Lahore gate. The bazars of Delhi are but indifferently furnished, and the population much reduced since the reign of Aurengzebe, when it is said to have contained two millions of inhabitants, an estimate in all probability very much exaggerated. The Chandery Choke used to be the best furnished bazar, but the commerce is trifling. Cotton cloths and indigo are still manufactured in the town and neigh-

bourhood. The chief imports are by the northern caravans which arrive annually, and bring from Cashmere and Cabul shawls, fruit, and horses. Precious stones of a good quality are to be had at Delhi, particularly the large red and black cornelians and peerozas; beedree hooka bottoms are also manufactured here. The cultivation in the neighbourhood is chiefly on the banks of the Jumna, where wheat, rice, millet and indigo are raised. The city is partitioned into 36 divisions, each named after a particular nobleman who formerly had his residence in that quarter, or from some local circumstance. The modern Delhi is principally built on two rocky eminences. The palace was erected by the Emperor Shah Jehan. It is situated on the west bank of the Jumna, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of red stone, the circumference of the whole being about one mile. Adjoining to it is the fortress of Selimghur, now in ruins. The observatory is in the vicinity of Delhi, and was built in the third year of Mahommed Shah, by Raja Jeysingh, but has since been repeatedly plundered.

The gardens of Shalimar were made by the Emperor Shah Jehan, and are said to have cost one million sterling; but, like his other works, are now in ruins. They appear to have occupied about one mile in circumference, and were surrounded by a high brick wall. The prospect to the southward of Shalimar, as far as the eye can reach, is covered with the remains of extensive gardens, pavilions, mosques, and sepulchres; all desolate and in ruins. During the reign of Jehangire, Ali Merdan Khan brought a canal from the Jumna, where that river approaches Carnaul, to Delhi, a distance of more than one hundred miles, which continued in existence until after the period of the Mogul and Afghan invasions, but was subsequently wholly choked up. In the suburbs of Mogul Parah, this canal extended three miles in length, and had small bridges erected over it, at different places. In 1810, the British government employed workmen to clear and repair this portion of the canal. The travelling distance from Calcutta by the Birboom road is 976 miles.

Rajas of Delhi, or Indraput, are mentioned by the Mahommedan historians so early as A. D. 1008; and in 1011, the city was taken and plundered by Sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, but it was restored to the Raja as a tributary.

1193. A. D. Cuttub ud Deen, the slave of Mahommed Gauri, took possession of Delhi from the Hindoo princes, and commenced the series of Afghan or Patan sovereigns, which reigned until the invasion of Baber, the great grandson of Timour. Cuttub ud Deen continued subject to the Gauride sovereigns of north-western India, until the destruction of that dynasty by Gengis Khan.

1210. Taje ud Deen ascended the throne.

1210. Aram Shah.

1210. Shums ud Deen Altumsh.
1235. Feroze Shah.
1235. Mallekeh Doran, Saltana Reziah.
1239. Byram Shah.
1242. Allah ud Deen Massud Shah.
1244. Nassir ud Deen.
1265. Yeaz ud Deen Balin.
1286. Kaicobad.
1289. Feroze Shah Khiljee.
1295. Secunder Sani.
1316. Shaheb ud Deen Omar.
1317. Mubaric Shah.
1324. Sultan Mahommed.
1351. Feroze Shah the second.
1289. Abubecre Shah.
1393. Nassir ud Deen Mahmood Shah. Timour in 1398, crossed the Indus, and took and pillaged Delhi during the reign of this prince; with whom, in 1413, ended the dynasty of Afghan princes of the tribe of Khiljee. Timour died A. D. 1405, in his 71st year.
1413. Dowlet Khan Lodi.
1414. Khizzer Khan.
1421. Mobaric Shah.
1433. Mahommed Shah the second.
1446. Allah ud Deen the second.
1450. Beloli Lodi. During this and the preceding reigns Hindostan was divided into separate states; for in the Deccan, Gujerat, Malwah, Juanpoor, and Bengal, there were princes who assumed the style and dignity of kings. The districts also in the immediate vicinity of Delhi were occupied by different chiefs, who scarcely even in appearance acknowledged the supremacy of the Delhi sovereign.
1488. Secunder Ben Lodi.
1516. Ibrahim Lodi. In 1525 this prince was defeated by Sultan Baber, who the same year took possession of Delhi, and founded the Mogul dynasty.
1525. Sultan Baber.
1530. Humayoon. This prince was expelled by Shere Shah the Afghan, but after the decease of the latter recovered possession, and was succeeded by his son,
1556. Acber the first. This prince was born at Amercote in 1542, proclaimed Emperor in 1556, and died at Agra in 1605. He was the greatest of all the

sovereigns of Delhi. His vizier Abul Fazel was murdered by some banditti in the 47th year of his age.

1605. Jehanghire.

1628. Shah Jehan.

1658. Aurengzebe. Died the 21st February, 1707.

Shah Allum the first. His eldest son died by poison in 1712.

Jehandaur Shah, dethroned and killed in 1712.

Ferokhsere was assassinated in 1719.

Ruffeh ul Dirjat, a child, died in 1719, reigned four months.

Ruffeh ud Dowlah, a child, died in 1720, reigned three months.

Mahommed Shah the third, died in 1747. In 1735, the Maharattas had made such progress that they burned the suburbs of Delhi. Nadir Shah entered Delhi on the 9th of March, 1739, and on the 14th of April began his retreat, having collected immense plunder.

Mahommed Shah was succeeded by Ahmed Shah, who in 1753 was dethroned and blinded.

Alumgeer the second, was assassinated in 1756, in which year Ahmed Shah Abdalli first entered Delhi.

Shah Jehan the second, dethroned in 1760.

Shah Allum the second. This monarch ascended the throne in 1761, and commenced his reign by an unprovoked and ill-conducted attack on the British possessions in Bengal, then recently acquired; but finding himself baffled and defeated, he soon after voluntarily surrendered himself at the British camp, without treaty, condition, or stipulation. On the acquisition of the Dewanny, by Lord Clive, in 1765, a pension of 26 lacks of rupees was assigned to him, with a considerable tract of fertile territory in Upper Hindostan, both of which he forfeited in 1771, by quitting the protection of his benefactors and repairing to Delhi, where he became a prisoner and political instrument under the custody of the Maharattas, who, about 1770, had gained possession of that city. In 1788, Gholaum Kaudir, the Rohillah, having by a sudden irruption made himself master of Delhi, seized the unfortunate Emperor, and after exposing him for many weeks to every species of insult and degradation, in order to extort the disclosure of supposed concealed treasures, concluded by piercing his eyes with a dagger, so as completely to extinguish the sight. For the attainment of the same object, he massacred, starved to death, and tortured, many of the royal family and of the chief inhabitants of Delhi, but being compelled to quit the city by a detachment from the army of Madhajee Sindia, he was captured during his flight, and expired under the tortures he had so mercilessly inflicted.

Nor was the misery of the Mogul Emperor's condition alleviated by the transfer in jaghire, which about this period took place, of Delhi and some adjacent territory, to the French officers commanding the corps of disciplined infantry retained in the service of Madhajee, and afterwards of his nephew Dowlet Row Sindia; for although he came successively under the ostensible superintendance of M. de Boigne, M. Perron, and M. Drugeon, he effectively remained a prisoner in the hands of the native Maharatta officers, and subjected to all their proverbial rapacity. During 1802, when there were 52 sons and daughters of the emperor, the monthly stipend allowed to each prince of the imperial family did not exceed 15 rupees per month (£21 per annum); and the sums disbursed by M. Drugeon, who had the charge of the emperor's person, for the aggregate expenses of his majesty, the royal family, dependants and establishments, amounted only to 17,000 rupees per month, or £23,664 per annum: while the Maharattas retained and converted to their own use all the gardens and houses in and about the city which were royal property, and perpetrated the most atrocious crimes for the purposes of extortion in the name of their imperial prisoner.

Such was the desolation of the ancient capital in 1803, when Lord Lake, having defeated the army of Dowlet Row Sindia, six miles from Delhi, on the 11th of September, entered it the next day, to the infinite joy of the aged emperor; and the Maharatta sway in Upper Hindostan being subsequently completely destroyed by a series of discomfitures, the Bengal government proceeded to make arrangements for his support. As a commencement, all the houses, gardens, and lands, of which the royal family had been deprived by the Maharattas, were restored to them, and these soon became of great value from the increased security of property. It was also determined that a specified proportion of the territories in the vicinity of Delhi, situated on the right bank of the Jumna, should be assigned in part of the provision for the maintenance of the royal family;—these lands to remain under the charge of the resident at Delhi, but the revenue to be collected and justice administered in the name of the Emperor Shah Allum, under regulations to be promulgated by the supreme government. That his Majesty should be permitted to appoint a dewan and other inferior officers, to attend at the office of the collector, for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting to his Majesty the amount of the collections, and satisfying his mind that no part of the revenue of the assigned territory was misappropriated: that two courts of justice should be established for the distribution of civil and criminal justice, according to the Mahommedan law, to the inhabitants of the city of Delhi and the assigned territory: that no sentence of the criminal court extending to the punishment of death should be carried into execution without the express sanction of his Majesty, to whom the proceedings

in all trials of this description were to be reported; and that sentences of mutilation should be commuted: that to provide for the immediate wants of his Majesty and the royal household, the following sums should be paid in money from the treasury of the resident at Delhi:

	Rupees.
To his Majesty for his private expenses . . . . . per month	60,000
To the heir apparent, exclusive of certain jaghires	10,000
To a favourite son of his Majesty, named Mirza Izzet Buksh . . .	5,000
To his Majesty's 50 younger sons and daughters	10,000
To Shah Nawauz Khan, his Majesty's treasurer	2,500
To Seid Rizzee Khan, British agent at his court, and related to him by marriage	2,500
Total per mensem	90,000

Amounting to £125,000 per annum, to be afterwards augmented to one lack of rupees per month, if the future produce of the assigned lands admitted of it, exclusive of all private property, and of 10,000 rupees to be paid his Majesty on the celebration of certain festivals.

The most urgent wants of the aged monarch and his family being thus supplied, various municipal improvements were effected, some of the canals were cleaned, the principal streets cleared of rubbish, and an efficient police established. The punishment of mutilation was abolished in this and in all the adjacent territories subject to the British jurisdiction, and a regulation was enacted, directing that when a person by the Mahommedan law was condemned to lose two limbs, the decree should be commuted to imprisonment and hard labour for a term of fourteen years; and if one limb, the same for seven years. The frequent assassinations which were customary during the Maharatta administration were effectually suppressed, more by the institution of regular courts, to which persons aggrieved could appeal, than by any extension of the penal code or sanguinary examples. But in thus protecting the person and increasing the comforts of the Mogul Emperor, it was never intended by the British government to employ the royal prerogative as an instrument to establish any controul over the different states and chieftains of India. An object of importance had been attained by his rescue from the custody of the French and Maharattas, who made use of his name to sanction their machinations for the subversion of the British dominion, in Hindostan, and retained in the most degraded condition of poverty and insult this unfortunate representative of the house of Timour. The most rational course appeared to be, to leave the king's authority exactly in the state in which it was found, and to afford the royal family the means of

subsistence, not merely in a style of comfort, but of decent splendour, not unsuitable to a fallen but illustrious race, to whose power the British nation had in a great measure succeeded.

From this period (September, 1803) the tranquillity of Delhi remained undisturbed until October, 1804, when Holcar, who was retreating from Mathura before Lord Lake, sent his infantry, provided with a formidable train of artillery, to invest the city, and the siege was accordingly commenced on the 7th day of that month. Owing to a variety of pressing exigencies in other quarters, the garrison was at this time not only too small for the defence of so immense a city, (the walls of which, besides their great extent, were accessible on all sides,) but extremely faulty in its composition, consisting partly of 300 Mewaties, robbers by profession, and a body of irregular horse, whose fidelity could not be relied on. The Mewaties justified their previous character by going over to the enemy at an early stage of the siege; and the irregular horse fled on the approach of the enemy, and could not be prevailed on to impede his advance by an attack while on the march. The enemy a few days afterwards having opened their batteries, and several breaches being effected, as much by the concussion of the guns on the crumbling ramparts, as by their shot, an attempt was made to carry the place by escalade, in which they were repulsed; and soon afterwards their guns were spiked in their batteries, during a sortie, by a detachment under Lieutenant Rose. Being thus baffled in their endeavours, they moved off on the 15th of October, although they had prepared their mines laid under the bastions between the Turkoman and Ajmeer gates, one of them pushed directly under the bastion and ready to be loaded. In this manner, by the judicious arrangements of Colonels Burn and Ochterlony, and the determined resistance of their troops, a small force was enabled to sustain a siege of nine days, repelled an assault, and defended a city ten miles in circumference, which had ever been heretofore given up on the first appearance of an enemy.

Shah Allum survived this event until December, 1806, when he finished a long and calamitous reign of 45 years, in the eighty-third of his life, and on the same day his oldest legitimate son, Acber, was placed on the throne. The accession of this prince was marked by the most unexampled tranquillity, the commencement of every prior reign having been invariably stained with bloodshed, and disturbed with tumult and commotion. But although peace prevailed without, discord raged within the walls of the seraglio, and Acber the Second had scarcely ascended the throne when, at the instigation of unprincipled advisers, he commenced a series of intrigues with the view of effecting the exclusion of his eldest son, Abul Zuffer, aged 32, (to whom he had taken a preposterous aversion) from the succession, and of procuring the sanction of the British government to

the nomination of his fourth and favourite son Jehandar Shah, as Walli Ahud, or heir apparent. The causes of the different princes were supported by parties within the walls of the palace, and the most contemptible acts of meanness and absurdity practised by the different factions. The cause of the legitimate heir, however, was fast declining, owing to the unnatural hatred of his father, who being naturally weak, was perplexed by the artifices of his servants, among whom no honest man could remain without external support. Being entirely ignorant also of his relative situation to the British government, he persevered in his determination to alter the line of succession, notwithstanding the reiterated remonstrances of the resident, who soon found that the effect of the kindness of the British government was quite destroyed by the impositions practised on him by his family and attendants, each of whom claimed the merit of accomplishing every measure in which his protectors acquiesced.

Accordingly, after several preliminary steps, Acber the second proceeded to the extremity of openly proclaiming his fourth son, Jehandar Shah, heir apparent, under the pretext that the oldest was disqualified for such an elevation by the weakness of his intellects. In this emergency the interposition of the British government became necessary, and the resident at Delhi was in consequence directed to institute an investigation regarding the sanity or derangement of the legitimate successor. The result of this was highly favourable to him, and the fact being established, his Majesty was informed, that it was an invariable maxim of British policy never to pass over the next in succession and lawful claimant to the throne, unless circumstances were so strongly against him as to preclude all hopes of improvement or amendment. That in the present case no such urgency existed, as the heir apparent's mind seemed quite adequate to his duties, and that the evils which would originate from an irregular succession were too great to permit so momentous a deviation, merely for the possible benefit to be derived from a successor of greater abilities. Nor could any thing very satisfactory be expected from the conduct of such a sovereign as his favourite Jehandar Shah, whose youth, and whatever abilities he possessed, had been directed to the base purpose of supplanting his eldest brother. To prevent the recurrence of the miserable artifices which had so long distracted the interior of the seraglio, and now threatened the capital with commotion, Jehandar Shah was ordered to take up his future residence at Allahabad, there to remain under the supervision of the judge and magistrate.

The prosperity of the territories, assigned in 1803 for the support of his Majesty and the royal family, continuing progressive, in 1812 his stipend was augmented to one lack of rupees per month, or £139,200 per annum. On their acquisition in 1803, they were leased on a triennial settlement, and the first year they yielded

only 353,952 rupees, (£41,058); but so rapidly did a few years of tranquillity and good government ameliorate the condition of the cultivators, and the productive powers of the lands, that in 1814, they realized 1,256,505 rupees, or £145,754 sterling. Nor did the ancient and venerable capital experience less benefit from the transfer than the surrounding territory, although the effects were not so quickly perceptible; and no improved system of government could compensate for the absence of a splendid and luxurious court, which in India will always collect a population and create a city. Ever since the death of Aurengzebe its population had been decreasing, and under the Sindia family its decline was so uninterrupted, that the land within the walls became of little or no value to the owners, who carelessly disposed of their rights for any trifle of ready money, and frequently to escape extortion disclaimed their properties altogether. Of this supineness they had subsequently cause to repent; for no sooner had the city surrendered to Lord Lake, than the value of houses and lands within the walls instantaneously doubled, and it has been progressively increasing ever since.

Among the most magnificent and useful memorials of the taste and splendour of the Emperor Shah Jehan remaining at Delhi, is the well belonging to the Jumma Musjeed (mosque) which was excavated, at an immense expense, out of the solid rock on which that edifice stands. The water is raised by a complicated machinery and a succession of reservoirs to the area of the mosque, where at the top of a grand flight of stairs it fills a small fish pond, and is of great utility to all ranks of persons, but more especially to the Mahommedans in the performance of their prescribed ablutions. For many years the decayed state of some of the principal wheels, and the ruinous condition of the machinery, rendered the supply of water both difficult to procure and extremely limited in quantity. At length, in 1809, it completely failed, and the consequences during the intensity of the hot season were extremely distressing to the inhabitants, and excited considerable interest in the mind of the Emperor. Under these circumstances Mr. Seton, the resident at Delhi, conceiving that the repair of the well, at the expense of the British government, would be highly gratifying to the inhabitants, authorized its being put into a state of repair, and the expense incurred was subsequently sanctioned by the supreme government.

No regular census of the inhabitants of Delhi has ever been taken, and any attempt at an actual enumeration would be viewed with jealousy and distrust by a people naturally averse to innovation, or to any new arrangement which tends to bring them more under observation, or seems likely to impose on them either additional duties or expense. From a concurrence of circumstances, there is reason to believe that the total number is somewhere between 150,000 and 200,000 souls; and small as this estimate is for so great a capital, the amount

more than doubles that of Agra, its former rival, the population of which is not now supposed to exceed 60,000. But notwithstanding its decayed condition an impression is still prevalent all over India, that the power which has possession of Delhi and the king's person is the virtual ruler of Hindostan; and under this idea many independent states have repeatedly applied to be received as subjects and tributaries, and complained of the refusal as a dereliction of duty on the part of the British government. For a great many years past applications of this nature have been most pressingly urged by the Rajas of Joudpoor, Jeypoor, Bicanere, Jesselmere, Assam, Cachar, and Arracan; the Nabobs of Mooltan and Behawulpoor, and by the numerous petty states so long harrassed by the depredations of Sindia, Holcar, Ameer Khan, and other plunderers. From the same cause also, although the Delhi Sovereign had been long deprived of all real power and dominion, before political events brought him connected with the British government, almost every state, and every class of people in India, still continue to reverence his nominal authority. The current coin of every established power is still struck in his name, and the princes of the highest rank still bear the titles, and display the insignia, which they or their ancestors derived from this source; and the Delhi Emperor, amidst all his viscissitudes, is still considered the only legitimate fountain of similar honours. In conformity with this notion it is usual, when a Hindoo prince succeeds to his deceased father, to solicit the Mogul to honour him with a teeka, as a mark of investiture, or at least of royal approbation; which ceremony consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruised sandal wood. Although this inunction had long ceased to be a necessary token of confirmation of the successor's right, it was still considered so gratifying a mark of distinction, that in 1807, Maun Singh, the powerful Raja of Joudpoor, petitioned the British government with much anxiety to interfere with the King to obtain it for him. The British government, however, refused to interfere, the right of conferring the mark of distinction being considered an obsolete act of sovereignty, the revival of which would be particularly objectionable. It was feared, moreover, that their interposition would be considered as a recognition of the pretensions of Raja Maun Singh, then disputed by a competitor, and as a departure from the neutrality which had always been observed. The Raja was accordingly apprized of this determination; the inutility of the act, as a mark of confirmation was represented, as well as the folly of making an unmeaning reference of the validity of his title to a power which neither claimed nor exercised a right to grant or withhold it.

The universality of this impression throughout Hindostan may be further inferred from the conduct of the Tamburetty or Princess of Travancore, a Hindoo state situated near Cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the region, and at

no period of its history subject to the Mogul, or to any Mahommedan superior: yet, in 1813, she applied to have a dress of investiture for her son, the infant Raja, although he was under the special guardianship of the British government, to which he was indebted for the tranquillity of his accession. The result of her application was the same as the one above mentioned, but she could not be convinced that the ceremonial was wholly superfluous. Under existing circumstances his Majesty's assumption of legitimate authority is altogether incompatible with the situation in which he is placed; his granting dresses of investiture was accordingly prohibited, both as impolitic, and as adding nothing to the validity of the succession. The same objection did not apply to the granting of titles, which have been admitted, through the agency of the British government, in favour of the Nizam and of the Nabobs of Bengal and the Carnatic.

These and similar applications, the King, being a man of weak intellects and quite infatuated with the idea of his own importance, is much disposed to encourage, because they at once gratify his visions of departed dignity, and promise to prove a source of emolument to his servants, and to the hordes of intriguers by whom he is surrounded. The exercise of such authority, however, is completely at variance with the scheme of British policy, the fundamental maxim of which is, that it shall not derive from the charge of protecting and supporting his Majesty, the privilege of employing the royal prerogative as an instrument for establishing any controul or ascendancy over the chiefs or states of India, or of asserting on the part of his Majesty, any of the claims which, in his capacity of Emperor of Hindostan, that prince may consider himself to possess upon the provinces formerly composing the Mogul empire. The British power in India is of too substantial a nature to incur the hazard of resorting to the dangerous expedient of borrowing any portion of authority from the lustre of the Mogul name; it could not therefore permit his interference to withdraw the inhabitants from their obedience to their actual superiors, or that he should attempt to convert his nominal into anything like a real supremacy. From the Emperor nothing was derived by the British government; and in return for the rescue of himself and family from a state of penury and degradation, and his support in comparative comfort and affluence under its protection, he is only required to continue to live peaceably, and to abandon all dreams of ancient grandeur.—*(Public MS. Documents, The Marquis Wellesley, Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, Franklin, Gladwin, Ferishta, Maurice, &c. &c. &c.)*

CUTTUB MINAR.—A remarkable pillar, situated about 9 miles south and 16 west from Delhi. Its base is a polygon of 27 sides, and rises in a circular form. The exterior part is fluted into 27 semicircular and angular divisions. There are 4 balconies in the height of the building. The first is at 90 feet, the second at 140,

the third at 180, and the fourth at 203 feet. An irregular spiral staircase leads from the bottom to the summit of the minar, which is crowned with a majestic cupola of red granite. The entire height of the pillar is 242 feet.

This monument appears to have been intended as a minaret to a stupendous mosque, which never was completed. The tomb of Cuttub Shah, at whose expense the minar is reported to have been erected, stands a few hundred yards to the westward. Cuttub Shah ascended the Delhi throne A. D. 1205, and died in 1210, after a reign of only five years, and on his decease a stop was probably put to the building. We have reason therefore to believe that this pillar has stood above 600 years.—*(Blunt, &c.)*

PULWUL.—This place is mentioned by Abul Fazel as marking the boundary where the Delhi province ceases, and that of Agra begins. It stands in lat. 28° 12′ N. long. 77° 12′ E. about 33 miles south from the city of Delhi.

BALAMGHUR.—This town and fortress is situated in lat. 28° 23′ N. long. 77° 10′ E. about 21 miles south from the city of Delhi.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

SOHNA.—A town in the Delhi province, 28 miles S. by W. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 21′ N. long. 76° 50′ E.

REWARY *(Revari)*.—This town is situated about 50 miles S. W. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 17′ N. long. 76° 25′ E. In the time of Abul Fazel it was the capital of a district, the revenues of which were estimated at 298,921 rupees, and described by him as follows, " Circar Rewary, containing 12 mahals; measurement 4,155,011 begahs; seyurghal 739,268 dams. This circar furnishes 2,175 cavalry and 14,000 infanty." The pergunnah of Rewary was one of those given to the Bhurtpoor Raja in October 1803, but resumed in consequence of his subsequent treachery. In 1805, owing to the depredations it had sustained, it was not expected to yield above 140,000 rupees. Rewary is a considerable entrepot for the commerce carried on from the city and neighbourhood of Delhi to the south-westward, the intercourse is great and constant, and its security as a depot for valuables conduces greatly to the commerce and general prosperity of the frontier. The military cantonments are three miles distant from the town, and usually accommodate 3 battalions of infantry.—*(Archibald Seton, Metcalfe, &c.)*

SONEPUT *(Sanapat)*.—This town with the lands attached form part of the territories, the revenue of which is assigned by the British government for the support of the Emperor and royal family of Delhi; but the produce now is greatly inferior to what it was when the adjacent country had the benefit of the canal dug by Ali Merdan Khan. To the north of this city is a mausoleum erected by Khizzer Khan, a Patan nobleman descended from the family of Shere Shah.

BAGHPUT *(Bhagapati)*.—A town in the province of Delhi, 17 miles N. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 56′ N. long. 77° 7′ E.

BERNAVER.—A town in the Delhi province, 33 miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 8′ N. long. 77° 16′ E.

SHAMLEE.—A town in the Delhi province, 53 miles N. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 27′ N. long. 77° 8′ E. This is a place about two miles in circumference, and contains many handsome houses, with a large bazar, and the remains of a mint. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and have separate gates at their entrances, which are shut at night for the security of the inhabitants.—*(G. Thomas, &c.)*

PANIPUT *(Panipati)*.—This town is situated about 50 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi, in lat. 29° 22′ N. long. 76° 51′ E. In its greatest extent it is about 4 miles in circumference, and was formerly surrounded by a brick wall, which partly remains. It was formerly a considerable emporium of commerce, but suffered great detriment from the incessant troubles which for a century agitated the province. The imports are salt, grain, and cotton cloths; the surrounding country produces and exports coarse sugar.

At this place is the shrine of a Mahommedan saint of great repute, named Shereef ud Deen Abu Ali Cullinder, whose death happened in the 724th year of the Hijera. To this shrine the present Emperor of Delhi, Acber the Second, was carried while young by the unfortunate Shah Allum, who consecrated on the spot a lock of his hair to the saint interred below. This ceremony imposes the obligation of suffering the lock of hair to remain untouched, until after the lapse of a certain portion of time it can be cut off on the very spot where it was originally selected for consecration. The consummation of this rite the Emperor is said to have much at heart, but as the pilgrimage would cause him to incur a great expense, and otherwise create considerable confusion, he has hitherto been persuaded to postpone its performance.

Paniput is famous for having been the scene where two of the greatest battles ever fought in India took place, both decisive of the sway of Hindostan. The first was in the year 1525, between the army of Sultan Baber and that of the Patan Emperor of Delhi, Ibrahim Lodi, in which the latter was slain and his army totally discomfited. With him the Patan dynasty of Lodi terminated, and the Mogul one of Timour commenced.

The second took place in 1761, between the combined Mahommedan army commanded by Ahmed Shah Abdalli, the sovereign of Cabul, and that of the Maharattas commanded by the Bhow Sidasiva. The Mahommedan army consisted altogether of 42,000 horse and 38,000 foot, besides camels, and between 70 and 80 pieces of cannon. These were the regular troops, but the irregulars which accompanied them were sometimes more numerous. The Durranies of

Cabul, who were the strength of the army, being about 29,000, were all men of great bodily vigour; their horses of the Turkish breed and very hardy.

The regulars of the Maharatta army consisted of 55,000 horse and 15,000 foot, with 200 pieces of cannon, and camel pieces and rockets without number. Besides the regular troops there were 15,000 Pindaries (plunderers), and the camp followers may be estimated at four times the number of regulars.

The armies continued in front of each other from the 26th of October 1760, to the 7th of January 1761, during which interval many bloody skirmishes took place, which generally terminated in favour of the Durranies. At the last mentioned period the Maharatta army being reduced to the greatest distress for the want of supplies, the Bhow determined to quit his entrenchments and give battle. The conflict continued nearly equal from the morning until noon, about which time Biswass Row, the Peshwa's son, a youth of seventeen, was mortally wounded, which appears to have decided the fate of the battle, as the Maharattas then fled in all directions, pursued by the victors, who gave no quarter in the heat of the pursuit.

Of all descriptions of men, women, and children, there were said to have been 500,000 in the Maharatta camp, of whom the greatest part were killed or taken prisoners, and of those who escaped from the field of battle, many were destroyed by the zemindars. About 40,000 prisoners were taken alive; those who fell into the hands of the Durranies were mostly murdered by them, alleging in jest as an excuse, that when they left their own country, their mothers, sisters, and wives desired, that when they defeated the unbelievers, they would kill a few of them on their account; that they might also possess a merit in the sight of the prophet.

The commander in chief of the Maharattas, Sidasiva Bhow, was probably killed in the battle, but this fact was never to a certainty established. Many years afterwards, about 1779, a person appeared at Benares who said he was the Bhow, and some of the Maharattas acknowledged his claim, while others treated him as an impostor, which he probably was.—*(Asiatic Researches, Ferishta, G. Thomas, Archibald Seton, &c.)*

JYGUR.—A town in the province of Delhi, situated in the vicinity of Paniput, and for some time possessed by the adventurer George Thomas.

KURNAL.—This town is situated about 67 miles N. by W. from Delhi, in lat. 29° 38′ N. long. 76° 46′ E. and in 1808 was, with the district attached to it, held by Mahommedee Khan; but its productive powers have been greatly reduced since the total extinction of Ali Merdan Khan's canal, by which it was intersected and fertilized.—*(Lieutenant White, &c.)*

KUNJPOORA.—A town in 1808 belonging to Rehmut Khan, 73 miles N. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 41′ N. long. 76° 51′ E. Indree is a large open town with a strong gurry, or native citadel; Kunjpoora is smaller, but surrounded by a strong wall.—*(Lieutenant White, &c.)*

SECUNDRA *(Alexandria)*.—A town in the Delhi province, 31 miles S. E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 28′ N. long. 77° 33′ E.

ROHILCUND.

This territory, named in Sanscrit Kuttair, comprehended that part of Hindostan situated east of the Ganges, between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude, and from 78° to 80° east longitude; commencing in the vicinity of the Lolldong pass, at the foot of the hills through which the Ganges penetrates, it extended south-eastward to the town of Pillibeet. On the north it was bounded by the Sewalic and Kemaoon hills; and on the south by the dominions of Oude. The principal rivers are the Ganges and the Ramgunga; the latter traversing Rohilcund in nearly its whole extent, and uniting with the Ganges near Kanoje. The Goggra or Sarjou passes the north-east corner, and there are besides many rivers issuing from the northern mountains, and contributing to its fertility, being distributed by means of canals and reservoirs: water is also found by digging a few feet under ground. Throughout its whole extent, the surface is flat, being part of the great plain reaching from the northern hills to the sea, through which flow the Ganges and its innumerable tributary streams. Three rivers, having their sources in the hills, intersect Khyraghur; the Sarda, the Kurnal, and Couriallah, in all of which gold is found mixed with sand, and is collected by a particular caste of people.

In the early periods of the Mogul empire, Rohilcund was a very flourishing country, and of great political importance. It then contained the cities of Shahabad Shahjehanabad, Bareily, Bisowly, Budayoon, Owlah, Moradabad, and Sumbul, which last communicated its name to a great part of the district. During the reign of the Patan dynasty in Hindostan, many princes of the royal family kept their courts for a series of years in the city of Budayoon, where, as in many other parts of Rohilcund, are still to be seen the remains of magnificent edifices, palaces, gardens, mosques, and mausoleums.

The Rohillahs were originally a colony of the Yusefzei Afghan tribe, but their constitution had nothing of the apparent democracy of the Afghan hordes. The chiefs were lords of the soil, the other Afghans their tenants, and generally their soldiers. This people migrated from the province of Cabul in Afghanistan about the beginning of the 18th century, and then consisted of several independent tribes, who, on pressing exigencies acted in concert, and were distin-

guished by the steady hatred which subsisted between them and the Maharattas. They are a courageous hardy race, and one of the few Mahommedan tribes who exercise the profession of agriculture, as well as that of arms. Their high spirit and ferocious uncultivated dispositions, render them difficult to govern or discipline; and in common with the other Afghan races, they have the reputation of being crafty, treacherous, and sanguinary. In some European works, the term Rohillah has been applied to the Afghans, but this is erroneous, as it is a Punjabee word, meaning a hilly country, and only known to the Afghans through the medium of books written in Hindostan.

About the year 1720, the Afghan chiefs, Bisharut Khan and Daood Khan, accompanied by a band of their needy and adventurous countrymen, came to Hindostan in quest of military service. They were first entertained by Madhoo Sah, the zemindar of Serowly, who, by robbery and predatory incursion, maintained a large party of banditti. While plundering an adjacent village, Daood Khan captured a youth of the Jaut tribe, whom he converted to the Mahommedan religion, named Ali Mahommed, and adopted to the prejudice of his other children. Daood Khan was succeeded as principal leader of the Rohillahs by Ali Mahommed, who, in consequence of the distracted state of Hindostan, soon established his power over the territory since named Rohilcund, although repeatedly brought to a low ebb by the Mogul armies from Delhi. Ali Mahommed died in 1748, and left six sons, but was succeeded in the chieftainship by Hafez Rehmut, whose authority, however, was constantly disputed by other leaders. In 1774, the combined forces of the Rohillahs were totally defeated by the British army at the battle of Cutterah, where Hafez Rehmut was slain; and with this event the Rohillah sway in Hindostan terminated, their country being transferred to the Oude government.

From this period may be dated the decline of the agriculture, commerce, and manufactures of Rohilcund (excepting in the district of Rampoor, which remained under the management of Fyzoola Khan), and nowhere was the rapacity of the Nabob of Oude's government exercised with such baneful success. Some little trade, however, continued to be carried on for eight or nine years after the conquest, chiefly under the protection, and through the influence of the British troops then stationed in the province. These having been withdrawn in 1782 and 1785, and the frontier left uncovered, a large body of Seiks crossed the Ganges at Tiggery ghaut, plundered Sumbul, Chandowsy, and some other towns, carrying off, unmolested, a considerable booty. This predatory incursion gave the coup-de-grace to the trade of Rohilcund, as thenceforward no man would venture his property in a country equally destitute of protection, from arbitrary exactions within, and plundering adventurers from without.

By the conditions of the commercial treaty, concluded between the East India

Company and the Nabob of Oude, in 1786, it was stipulated, that all European articles and goods, the produce of the Company's provinces, might be conveyed into any part of the Oude dominions and sold, on paying certain duties; but Rohilcund was excepted, and by the influence of a base and malignant policy, was excluded from any participation of the benefits that might have resulted from the treaty. In fact, the exorbitant and capricious duties levied on European and Bengal commodities in Rohilcund, amounted nearly to a prohibition. Broad cloths, spices, silks, and other articles, nevertheless, made their way across the continent from Gujerat to the Hurdwar fairs; and before the decline and extinction of external commerce, merchants were settled in the large towns of Bareily, Chandowsy, Moradabad, and Nujibabad; but they had found it necessary to suspend all commercial undertakings. While from these causes the resources of the Vizier's portion of Rohilcund daily diminished, Fyzoola Khan, although he received the Rampoor jaghire in a flourishing state, by an uniform and steady adherence to the system of his ancestors, nearly doubled his revenue, while the Oude section of the province was so exhausted, that it yielded only one-third of the amount realized prior to the conquest.

The staple commercial articles in Rohilcund are cotton cloths and sugar, to which cotton, as a raw material, has recently been added. The first (with the exception of those for which advances are given by European traders) are usually unfit for the Europe market, being deficient in breadth, and of an inferior texture; but the price is proportionally moderate. At the period of the cession it was calculated that 20,000 looms were worked in Rohilcund, and that cloths to the valueof 30 lacks of rupees, were annually fabricated. In 1796, Almas Ali Khan, the eunuch, compelled the weavers to manufacture cloths for the Europe market, and oppressively reduced the price to one rupee per piece. In later times, cloth of this description has been fabricated for merchants resident at Nuggeena, Nujibabad, Moradabad, Reher, Cassipoor, Bareily, Shahjehanpoor, and Phillibeet. In remote times the cultivation of the sugar cane was carried on to a great extent; and as the article was deemed of a superior quality to that produced in any other part of Hindostan, the countries to the west and south were almost exclusively supplied from Rohilcund. In 1802, it still continued an important traffic, the traders from the west purchasing it at Chandowsy, and those from the Deccan at Hatras in the Doab, to which mart it was transported from Rohilcund. A considerable amount of the land revenue was then paid from the sugar cultivation. The natives of the hills bordering on the northern frontier, as also the inhabitants of Lahore, Cashmere, Cabul, and Candchar, take off sugar in considerable quantities.

The articles of trade brought from the hills consist of borax, bees-wax, musk,

gums, drugs of various kinds, cow tails, copper, and iron. The returns are made in white cloths, tobacco, and sugar. Formerly, the people of the distant hills used to bring their commodities to Almora, to which mart purchasers from the low countries resorted. The forests immediately at the base of the hills abound with the tree which yields the kut; an article of general consumption along with the betel, and also used in dying. These hills also contain copper and iron, which the natives collect either on the surface or after very slight excavations.

As the manufacture of salt in Rohilcund is very inconsiderable in proportion to its consumption, and the article itself is of an inferior quality, this artificial necessary is largely imported, and forms one of the chief returns for the native productions exported. In 1802, this portion of Hindostan was mostly supplied with Sambher salt, the produce of a salt lake in the province of Ajmeer, where it was collected in large quantities, and by being clandestinely smuggled into Benares and other parts of the Company's old provinces, considerably interfered with the government monopoly. The natives of Upper Hindostan are generally prejudiced against sea salt; which is, however, always greatly adulterated before it reaches them.

From Afzulghur to Khyraghur there are extensive forests, and a great number of labourers find employment in the wood trade. Bamboos, sissoo, saul, toon, and various other trees abound; and besides there are pine trees in many places, some of which are 90 feet in length, and if seasonably drained of the sap before being cut down, might prove suitable for masts. The wood cutters who fell the trees at the bottom of the hills, contract with the merchants to cut and float them down the rivers. From the bamboo is procured the banse lochun, which is much used by native doctors, and sells for nearly its weight in silver.

The three hill articles of the greatest value, and of which the greatest quantities are purchased by the merchants from the low countries, are wax, borax, and kut; besides which, the hill natives also bring and sell at the ghauts or passes, unrefined gold. In the Bareily district, as it was originally formed, there were 14 ghauts or passes, through which the mountaineers descended with their commodities, viz. Kheirghur, Poorunpoor, Sitny Pillibeet, Belahry, Nabobgunge, Nanai, Muttah, Cossipoor, Baugpoor, Rooderpoor, Jesspoor, Chilkeah, Reher, Afzulghur, and Zabetagunge. In 1802, there was but little opium cultivated, but the quality was excellent, and the soil was equal to the production of any quantity. Saltpetre might also be made, as there are a great number of Looneahs (the caste who prepare it) in Rohilcund. A considerable number of elephants are caught below the hills, and during the government of Asoph ud Dowlah, a darogah was maintained at his expense, who caught a great number of them, and sent them to Lucknow. They abound mostly in the vicinity of

Pillibeet; and a fourth of the number caught is the government proportion; but in 1802, the farm of the privilege of catching them, only produced 1800 rupees.

From the researches of Mr. Lloyd it appears, that the whole province of Rohilcund yielded to the Patan government a jumma of 8,457,000 rupees; of which the present district of Bareily paid 4,311,000 rupees, and that of Moradabad 4,146,000 rupees, and that on the conquest of the province in 1774 by Shuja ud Dowlah, the revenues of Moradabad immediately fell to 2,704,678 rupees, and continued to decrease under the Lucknow administration to 2,163,922, the jumma of the year 1801, in which the cession took place. Notwithstanding the reputation of the Rohillahs for turbulence, the tranquillity of this province remained undisturbed from the cession in 1801, until A. D. 1815. In corroboration of this it is only necessary to observe, that at the time of the removal of the Nabob of Oude's officers, when disturbances were most to be expected, a considerable reduction of the army had just taken place, and great anxiety and suspense necessarily pervaded all classes while the regulations were in progress at Lucknow, yet no opposition to the firm establishment of the British authority throughout the province occurred, and the whole of the lands were leased for three years, with the greatest facility, and at a progressively increasing rent. In 1815, the Patan population about Bareily hoisted the green standard of revolt, and nearly overpowered a small detachment consisting of 3 companies of sepoys, under Captain Boscawen, by their prodigious numbers. The attack was so sudden, that they penetrated the square before the fourth side could be formed, but were literally blown out again with vast slaughter, by the decisive measure of turning one of the guns at the angles inward, loaded with grape.

At present this extensive province is subdivided into the separate jurisdictions of Bareily, Moradabad, and Shahjehanpoor; under which heads, respectively, further particulars will be found. From the trade carried on, and the wealth accumulated, in the small territory of Rampoor, prior to the death of Fyzoola Khan, some idea may be formed of the productive powers of Rohilcund; but to moderate over sanguine expectations it must be recollected, that a considerable proportion of the most industrious inhabitants had quitted the country before it came under the British sway. For a long period of time also preceding that event, a total stagnation of trade had prevailed in Rohilcund, the trading capital having been either dissipated or transferred to a more genial government. The Mahommedans of Rohilcund had long been accustomed to an idle and licentious military life, yet the example of this small territory (the Rampoor jaghire) proved, that the habits of idleness prevailing among this class of people are not insurmountable, and that they may be brought to employ themselves both in

manufactures and in the pursuits of agriculture.—*(Sir Henry Wellesley, C. Lloyd, Franklin, Forster, &c. &c.)*

RAMGUNGA RIVER.—This river has its source in the mountains of Kemaoon, about 25 miles N. W. from the town of Almora, from whence it flows in a south easterly direction through the province of Rohilcund, with a very winding stream, until it falls into the Ganges, not far from Kanoje, having performed a course of about 300 miles including the windings, and received the accession of many tributary small rivers.

THE DISTRICT OF BAREILY.

This subdivision of the Delhi province is situated principally between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Kemaoon hills; on the south by the Oude reserved territories, and the districts of Furruckabad and Alighur; on the east it has the Nabob's reserved territories; and on the west the Moradabad, Alighur, and Furruckabad districts. When the institutes of Acber were compiled by Abul Fazel in 1582, it was comprehended in the circar of Budayoon, and described under that name; but the original appellation of a great part of the country prior to the Rohillah conquest was Kuthair. Subsequent to this latter event it was incorporated with the province of Rohilcund, of which it formed the largest portion, and under which head some of its geographical features have been detailed.

The surface of this district is in general level, and well watered by many small rivers, besides the Ganges which bounds it on the west. To the north of Rampoor the Kosila river is navigable during the rains, and serves to float down large timber. In the neighbourhood of Acberabad the country is well cultivated, and cloth of a good quality is manufactured. Around Cossipoor is moderately cultivated with sugar canes and grain, but in advancing towards Chilkiya much jungle is passed. Chilkiya is a considerable mart to which the natives of the Kumaoon hills resort to exchange their goods for the produce of the plains. In 1803, the chief supplies brought from below to this market were chintzes, gudjoes, salt, coarse sugar, cotton goods, coarse cutlery, cheap trinkets, coral, and beads. The goods from above were then mostly transported on loaded goats, by which mode they were conveyed for very great distances, even from Tibet.

Since the introduction of the manufacture of saltpetre in 1778, by the Nabob of Oude, the manufacture of home made salt materially decreased, and latterly did not exceed 4000 maunds. The Kurrah salt is extracted during the nitre making process, and when skilfully made, is white and well crystallized.

Prior to the cession of Rohilcund, in 1801, about 430,000 maunds of foreign salt were imported, of which about 180,000 maunds were subsequently exported, viz.

85,000 maunds to Mahomdy, Khyrabad, and the northern parts of the Nabob of Oude's dominions, including Baraitche and Gorucpoor.

65,000 maunds for Chandowsy, which was then the grand salt mart of Rohilcund, transported chiefly in carts.

30,000 maunds to Serinagur, or Gurwal, and the Kumaoon hills, upon bullocks and buffaloes, by the roads of Nujibabad, Cossipoor, Belharee, and Pillibeet.

180,000 maunds.

The exports from Bareily to the Maharatta country were sugar, jaggry, and rice, besides a few articles from the northern hills, such as borax, peeplamool, huldee, and kut; the whole amounting to about 5 lacks of rupees. Before the cession of Rohilcund to the British government, in addition to the articles already mentioned, there were imported from the bordering hills slave girls, 42 sorts of drugs, and from ten to twenty elephants, which last were caught in the jungles, were they continue in great numbers, but of an inferior quality.

After the conquest of Rohilcund in 1774, by the British troops for Shuja ud Dowlah, it rapidly declined and became almost a waste from the misgovernment it suffered. Betwixt Anopsheher and Bareily extensive wastes, formerly under cultivation, are still to be seen. These are covered with long grass, which in the hot season becomes so parched as to be easily inflamed, and abounds with foxes, jackals, hogs, hares, and every sort of game, which range these wide plains unmolested. In summer, notwithstanding its northern latitude, the heat of Bareily is intense; but during the winter months, when the wind blows from the northern mountains, the thermometer falls below 30 degrees, and water in the tents freezes. There is nothing peculiar in the vegetable productions, except that Bareily is noted for a species of rice of an excellent flavour named the basmati (pregnant with perfume), which is greatly superior to the finest sort of what is called Patna rice.

The district of Bareily, including Shahjehanpoor, contains several large and populous towns, the chief of which are the two capitals, Bareily and Shahjehanpoor, Pillibeet, Chandowsy, and Budayoon, and the whole country formerly abounded with a warlike race of Mahommedans, ready to join any leader. Some thousands of this description served under Holcar, and many with their countryman Ameer Khan. They are disaffected to the British government, not because it is unjust or oppressive, but because there is no employment for them, and

they are left inactive without distinction and without subsistence. Few of these people enlist in the British service, because they cannot bring themselves to submit to the strictness of European discipline. These Patans are in general reduced to much distress, they are idle, and with difficulty apply to any profession but that of arms. Among them the influence of a rebellious or disaffected chief over his followers is very great, and is not founded on the popularity or supposed justice of his cause, and very little on the probability of his success. Although he be a mere robber and his situation quite desperate, still his people will adhere to him to the last, and never betray or forsake him. The Rohillahs are a tall handsome race of men, and when compared with the more southern inhabitants of India are white and well featured. There are here few Hindoo temples of any magnitude, the zeal of the Mahommedans having been too intolerant, and their possession of the country too effectual to permit their existence. The two sects probably approach nearer to an equality in respect to numbers, than in most other districts; but no approximation to an actual enumeration of the total population has ever been made, although it is known to be very considerable, especially in the vicinity of the capital.

In November, 1801, this extensive and fertile territory was received in cession from the Nabob of Oude, on which event it was partitioned into judicial subdivisions, and European functionaries appointed for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue. In 1808, the jumma, or land assessment, only amounted to 1,492,640, but so rapid had been the improvement, that in 1813 the lands were leased for a five years' settlement on the following terms, exclusive of the customs and duties on spirituous liquors.

For the fusly, or financial year 1220 (1813-14)	2,071,879
Ditto, 1221	2,249,578
Ditto, 1222	2,342,570
Ditto, 1223	2,398,752
Ditto, 1224	2,442,622

The jumma of 1813 of the districts of Bareily and Shahjehanpoor, collectively, was only 3,267,686 rupees; but would have amounted to 34 lacks and a half, had not the land renters purposely reduced their cultivation, with the view of compelling to unfavourable terms, and had not the entire district been of so enormous a magnitude, as to disable the collector from checking such a combination. The collection of so large a revenue, from more than 12,000 landholders and renters, was found to be more than one collector was able to superintend, without great detriment to the interests of government, in a country where a permanent settlement had not been introduced. In the Bareily division, the collection of the revenue had always, from local causes, been extremely difficult, nor could it be

supposed, that the persons now paying 35 lacks could easily forget, that a few years before they paid no more than 25; although they actually did pay more than the largest sum, in different shapes, while subject to the Nabob of Oude.

In consequence of the enormous revenue and local peculiarities, it became necessary to relieve the collector from part of his multifarious duties, by dividing the Bareily district into two collectorships; the eastern station having its head quarters at Shahjehanpoor, and to comprehend the pergunnahs of Premnagur, Mohrabad, Meerapoor, Kutna, Tilhar, Jelalpoor, Resulpoor, Negohee, Marrowee, Shahjehanpoor, Burragong, Powanie, Khotar, Poorunpoor, Khyreeghur, Oojhannee, Kote Salbahaun, and Budayoon. The rest of the divisions to remain attached to Bareily. A large increase of revenue may hereafter be looked for in the eastern collectorship, as Poorunpoor, Khryreeghur, Khotar, and Powanie, contain immense tracts of waste land, formerly highly productive and populous, but now desolate, owing to the oppression of the native governments, and to other local causes; but they are now once more emerging from their state of desolation, and may soon be expected to yield a great accession of agricultural productions.

The realization of the revenue in the ceded and conquered districts, and the establishment of the sovereign's just rights to what has been alienated by fraud, require peculiar qualifications in the European revenue officer to whom these functions are delegated. In the lower provinces, where the permanent settlement, while it bars all further investigation of resources, has given a value to landed property which can always be procured by bringing it to the hammer, and where the long continued mutations of ownerships have facilitated transfers, the recovery of an arrear is simply a mechanical process. But in the ceded provinces, where the ownership neither can nor ought to be taken from the ancient proprietor in default, where purchasers are seldom to be found on any, and never on adequate terms, the whole security of the public revenue rests on the personal activity and decision of the collector, and in his having recourse to prompt measures at the critical moment, when alone they can prove effectual. In this region no punctuality of payment for any length of time under an efficient collector, will secure the revenue under a successor who is not so.

If the state of Bareily and Moradabad be compared with that of any district situated in the Doab, with reference to the number and nature of offences committed in the course of any time since the establishment of the present system in 1807, it will appear that crimes of a heinous nature, such as gang and highway robbery, have been much more frequent in the Rohilcund districts, various causes having combined to render the operations of the police less efficacious,

and its duties more difficult, in the latter than in the former. Rohilcund is exposed on every side, except the west, to the depredations of banditti, either from the territories of his excellency the Nabob of Oude, or from forests which extend along the northern and eastern frontier; in addition to which it is liable to similar attacks from the independent jaghire of Rampoor. In Rohilcund there is little internal trade except that of grain, and scarcely any foreign intercourse, there being actually hardly any other occupation than that of husbandry, which has not a rapid influence in effecting any improvement on the pre-existing manners. The consequence is, that the inhabitants of Rohilcund are more behind in civilization, and in a knowledge of the peaceful arts, than any other class of British subjects in Upper Hindostan.

There are few offences that do not occur in Bareily, but there is a great difference both with respect to the prevalence of crimes, and the nature of those committed in particular parts of the jurisdiction. In the southern portion of the territory situated between the Ganges and Ramgunga, the most common crimes of magnitude are affrays and robberies. The first generally originate in disputes between the inhabitants of different pergunnahs; the latter are in most instances committed by the inhabitants of Sandee and Pallee, two adjacent pergunnahs in the Oude dominions, the natives of which are notorious and habitual plunderers, considering their incursions as a regular source of legitimate emolument. The existence of these depredators, and of the trade they pursued, were perfectly well known to the Nabob, but his excellency appeared to be either not able, or not disposed to punish the depredators, and thereby became himself suspected of participation. The number of prisoners under sentence of the court of circuit and liable to hard labour, within the Bareily division, at the commencement of 1815, was 1700, and it was suggested by Mr. Ker, the judge of circuit, that they should be employed either in opening the Delhi canal, or in deepening the Cali nullah, so as to render it navigable throughout the year. In 1815 an insurrection took place among the prisoners confined at Bareily, of whom 83 escaped, and 15 were killed. Of the guard, the jemadar and another was killed, and five wounded, as was also Mr. Bosanquet, the assistant magistrate. The average number of prisoners under confinement throughout the year 1813-14 was 472. Although several of the districts subordinate to the Bareily court of circuit appear to be undergoing a gradual, though slow improvement, yet there is evidence enough to shew, that the police as it stands at present has by no means attained a systematic efficiency. The vast extent of some of the districts, the comparative thinness of the population, the intermixture of independent jaghires, the very great length of frontier bordering on foreign states, and the inadequate

number of judicial officers, may be considered among the principal causes of greater progress towards improvement not having been made.—*(Deane, Gott, Guthrie, Tennant, Sir H. Strachey, 5th Report, &c. &c. &c.)*

BAREILY *(Barali.)*—This town stands on the banks of the united streams of the Jooah and Lunkra, about 42 miles N. W. of the Ganges. Lat. 28° 23′ N. long. 79° 16′ E. The fort is a great irregular mass of building, equally destitute of strength or elegance, and without bastions for guns; but the town is a large and thriving place, and has been supposed by one of the circuit judges to equal Furruckabad in population, which is known to contain 67,000 inhabitants. The lands in the vicinity of Bareily are not elevated more than eight feet above the Ramgunga; while the mountain streams by which the district is intersected lessen the expense and labour of cultivation, and by their annual inundations fertilize the soil. The principal manufacture is that of brazen water pots, which are made here in great numbers. The amount paid into the Bareily treasury in 1812, on account of duties received at the custom house, was 45,000 rupees, and in 1813 was 165,000 rupees.

Bareily was the capital of Hafez Rehmut, a Rohillah chief, slain at the battle of Cutterah, and here he lies interred. In 1774, this town was added along with the district to the dominion of Shuja ud Dowlah, then Nabob of Oude, and in 1801 transferred to the British, when it was made the head quarters of a civil establishment for the administration of justice and collection of the revenue; and also of a court of circuit and appeal, to which the following districts are subordinate: 1, Caunpoor; 2, Furruckabad; 3, Etaweh; 4, Agra; 5, Alighur; 6, South Saharunpoor or Merut; 7, North Saharunpoor; 8, Moradabad; 9, Bareily. Travelling distance from Delhi 142 miles; from Calcutta by Moorshedabad 910; by Birboom 805 miles; from Lucknow 156 miles.—*(Ker, A Ross, Hardwicke, Franklin, Rennell, &c.)*

OWLAH *(Aula, first)*.—This decayed town stands about 16 miles N. W. from the town of Bareily, and has the Nawaub nullah stream on the south-western side. On the summit of an eminence is a brick fort, erected about 75 years ago by Ali Mahommed, the founder of the Rohillah state, who held his court here. In the environs, which during the Oude government were waste, are to be found the ruins of palaces, mosques, and gardens.—*(Franklin, &c.)*

SHAIRGUR.—A town in the Bareily district, 20 miles N. from the town of Bareily. Lat. 28° 20′ N. long. 79° 45′ E.

SHAHJEHANPOOR.—To this town a fiscal subdivision of the enormous district of Bareily is attached, but the same judge administers justice and superintends the police of both. It is situated in lat. 27° 52′ N. long. 79° 48′ E. 50 miles S. E. from Bareily, and is asserted by a gentleman eminently qualified to decide,

to be more wealthy than Bareily, and nearly as populous, so that probably an allowance of 50,000 inhabitants is within the mark. In the schools here each boy is provided with a black board like a slate, upon which he writes the letters with a chalk pencil. While he writes the characters, he at the same time acquires their names, and the power of each when joined in syllables, and thus reading and writing are attained by one operation.

In 1813, the board of commissioners in the conquered and ceded provinces made a settlement of the land revenue of the Bareily and Shahjehanpoor districts for five years, on the following terms for the latter, which in A. D. 1808 yielded only 812,059 rupees:—

For the fusly, or financial year 1220 (1813-14) . . .	1,191,477
Ditto, 1221	1,241,462
Ditto, 1222	1,296,519
Ditto, 1223	1,317,044
Ditto, 1224	1,335,265

The great and rapid augmentation thus made of the available resources in this and the adjacent district of Bareily, might, under ordinary circumstances, have excited apprehensions as to their stability; but the success and facility with which the revenues were actually realized during the years 1813 and 1814, are calculated to dissipate any apprehensions which might have been entertained on this subject. In April, 1815, however, the tranquillity of Shahjehanpoor was disturbed by two marauders, named Madhoo Singh and Oodhu Sing, who, at the head of a considerable body of followers, plundered and burned two villages, where they murdered a resident European who was engaged in commercial transactions. They subsequently advanced to Shahjehanpoor, and attacked the collector's treasury, but were frustrated by the joint magistrate.—*(Deane, MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

KOOTAR.—A town in the Delhi province, 55 miles E. S. E. from Bareily. Lat. 28° 12′ N. long. 80° 10′ E.

CUTTERAH.—This place stands in lat. 28° 3′ N. long. 79° 32′ E. about 28 miles S. E. from Bareily, and has now the appearance of a large and ruinous village, very thinly inhabited in proportion to its size. In 1774, a decisive battle was fought here, in which Shuja ud Dowlah, with the assistance of the British forces, defeated the Rohillahs, and afterwards subdued Rohilcund as far north as the Lolldong pass. Hafez Rehmut, the principal leader of the Rohillahs, was slain in this action, and that people annihilated as an independent state, although they still form a considerable portion of the Rohilcund population.—*(Tennant, &c. &c. &c.)*

JELALABAD.—A town in the Bareily district, 46 miles S. by W. from Bareily. Lat. 27° 45′ N: long. 79° 28′ E.

OSSOHEET.—A town in the Delhi province, district of Bareily, 40 miles S. by W. from the town of Bareily. Lat. 27′ 49′ N. long. 79° 6′ E.

BUDAYOON *(Badavan)*.—When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, this was a town of considerable celebrity, and the capital of a district, which he describes as follows: "Circar Budayoon, containing 13 mahals; measurement 8,093,850 begahs; revenue 34,717,063 dams; seyurghal 457,181 dams. This circar furnishes 2,850 cavalry and 26,700 infantry." It was first conquered by the Mahommedans in A. D. 1203, when it was a flourishing place, but it has long ceased to be of any importance, or to attract attention in any other respect than its antiquity. It stands in lat. 28° 4′ N. long. 28° 58′ E. 29 miles S. W. from Bareily.

POORUNPOOR.—A town in the Delhi province, 48 miles E. by N. from Bareily. Lat. 28° 32′ N. long. 80° 2′ E.

ROODERPOOR *(Rudrapura)*.—A town in the Bareily district, 41 miles north from the town of Bareily. Lat. 28° 58′ N. long. 79° 22′ E.

PILLIBEET *(Pilibhit)*.—During the Rohillah government, Pillibeet was an emporium of commerce, and was greatly enlarged by Hafez Rehmut, who built a spacious pettah four miles in circumference. After the transfer of Rohilcund to the Nabob of Oude, its commerce was nearly annihilated, but it has since considerably revived, the staple articles being saul, sisso and fir timbers, sugars and coarse cloths; and from the Kumaoon hills, borax, drugs, pitch, wax, and honey are imported. Lat. 28° 42′ N. long. 79° 42′ E. 32 miles N. E. from Bareily.

KELPOORY *(Kelapuri)*.—This town is situated in the northern quarter of the Bareily district approaching the hills, and formerly had a small district attached to it, composed of land naturally fertile, but from misgovernment thinly inhabited, and much covered with jungle and extensive forests. In the time of Abul Fazel, it appears to have been comprehended in the circar, or division of the Delhi province, named Sumblpoor. The town, which is of small size and little note, stands in lat. 28° 58′ N. long. 79° 35′ E. about 45 miles N. by E. from Bareily.

BISSOLIE *(Visavali)*.—This town stands in lat. 28° 19′ N. long. 78° 46′ E. 31 miles west from Bareily, and during the early period of the Mogul empire was in a very flourishing condition, which continued under the Rohillahs, but is in comparison now waste and desolated. Several of the family of the Rohillah founder, Ali Mahommed, are buried here.

CHUNDOWSY.—Before the cession of Rohilcund to the British government in

1801, this was the grand salt mart of the province. The town is situated in lat. 28° 26′ N. long. 78° 38′ E. 40 miles W. by N. from Bareily.

Husseinpoor (*Hosainpur*).—A town in the Delhi province, 65 miles E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 44′ N. long. 78° 9′ E.

Sumbul (*Sambhala*).—A town in the Delhi province, 21 miles N. W. from Bareily. Lat. 28° 37′ N. long. 78° 29′ E.

Aounla.—A town in the district of Bareily, 26 miles W. by S. from the town of Bareily. Lat. 28° 19′ N. long. 79° 2′ E.

Khyreeghur.—The pergunnah of Khyreeghur is separated from the rest of the Bareily district, and indeed from the British territories generally, by the Kali branch of the river Goggra. The town stands in lat. 28° 19′ N. long. 80° 47′ E. about 100 miles N. from Lucknow.

This small division forms the extreme north-eastern corner of the Bareily district, from which, as mentioned above, it is separated by the Goggra, and from the first range of mountains by the undefined possessions of certain hill chiefs, over whom the Nepaulese government claim, and occasionally exercise, authority. The whole face of the country, from the mountains to the Goggra, is covered with saul forest, interspersed with patches of cultivation. The nominal revenue assessed on this pergunnah is only 6000 rupees; but small as it is, it has never been realized, while the actual disbursements of the revenue establishment exceed the amount of this imaginary revenue. The actual assets which Ram Dial Singh, the zemindar, derives from this territory are only 3000 rupees, obtained in part by granting permission for the pasturage of cattle, and partly by levying unauthorized duties on the trade passing through his country to the hills. In 1813, when the circumstances of this tract were investigated, the senior judge of circuit thought the pergunnah was of no value, but Dr. Rutherford, who had visited it, was of a different opinion, and thought it possessed resources capable of yielding a large increase of revenue, if adequately protected and secured from predatory incursions. The climate is admitted to be unhealthy, and only to be supported by the indigenous natives, proving fatal to strangers for the greater part of the year.

Owing to its remote and secluded position, the authority of the magistrate throughout the pergunnah is little more than nominal, and his information of the occurrences of crimes so defective, that no reports on the subject had been received during the whole year 1811, although we may venture to presume a total cessation of crime had no more taken place in Kyreeghur than in any other part of the province. In consequence of these untoward circumstances, the Bengal government in 1812 contemplated the exchange of this remote, and to them unprofitable district, for a small slip of the Nabob of Oude's dominions, near to where the Ramgunga falls into the Ganges, and application was accord-

ingly made at Lucknow; but his excellency was then found impracticable. Subsequent, however, to the conclusion of the Nepaul war, it was accepted by that potentate along with the Nepaulese Terriani bordering his dominions, in extinction of one of the crores of rupees which he had lent to the British government from the treasures of his deceased father Saadet Ali.—*(Guthrie, T. Brooke, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF MORADABAD.

The western portion of Rohilcund forms the district of Moradabad, which is situated between the 28th and 30th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is separated from the province of Serinagur, or Gurwal, by a range of mountains, through which rushes the Ganges at Hurdwar; on the south it is bounded by the district of Bareily and Alighur; to the east it has the Kumaoon mountains and district of Bareily; and to the west it is separated by the Ganges from the districts of North and South Saharunpoor. In 1808, Moradabad, exclusive of the woods and forests contiguous to the hills, was estimated to contain 5,727,381 large begahs, distributed in the following proportions, viz.

			Begahs.
Land under cultivation			1,710,443
Lands uncultivated but fit for tillage, viz.	Chunchar	44,055	
	Bunjur	1,317,627	
	Dhaka and Jungle	731,745	
			2,093,437
Land not fit for tillage			727,860
Land stated to be held rent free			1,195,640
	Total		5,727,381

The above computation, however, having been made from native documents, falls short of the truth by about 700,000 begahs. The total surface, according to Colonel Colebroke's new map, may be estimated at 6,800,000 begahs. Even the tract under the hills is capable of cultivation, and various spots are in fact cultivated; the quantity also above stated as unfit for tillage is of great utility as pasture.

The pergunnahs of Cossipoor, Rooderpoor, Thakoordwara, Reher, Nujibabad, Seercote, Afzulghur, and Surkurrah, as also the northern parts of Nuggeenah, contain extensive tracts of rich land which are not cultivated. One obstacle to their complete improvement is the insalubrity of the climate, owing to the vicinity of the hills; another is the absence of population. The soil is naturally moist, and in most places the tilled lands, if it is required, can be irrigated; dry weather, therefore, in these tracts, does not injure the crops, but the reverse, as it permits

the fields to be ploughed and sown to greater advantage. If a greater quantity of this description of land were cultivated, the supply of grain would be greater in times of general scarcity, and the collections made, during seasons of drought elsewhere, would be greater. The pergunnahs of Amraha, Buckwan, Neurale, Russoolpoor, Behjoy, Bissowlee, Sattasee, Islamnagur, Daranagur, Chandpoor, Azimpoor, Bashtah, Naktour, and Rajpoorah, have a mixed sandy soil, the produce of which is consequently very uncertain. Of the remaining pergunnahs no particular specification respecting the soil can be made; those bordering on the Ganges are productive, but liable to inundation.

The most valuable articles of agricultural produce are sugar and cotton. The planting of the sugar cane has progressively increased since 1803, although in the succeeding year it received a check from the establishment of the salt monopoly. The demand for Moradabad sugar is usually great, both in the Doab and across the Jumna, and the culture of the plant is well understood all over Rohilcund. The quality of the sugar, especially about Kerutpoor and Nuggeenah, nearly equals that of the Havannah. In 1808, the price of chence, or fine sugar, here was only 8 rupees per maund. Wheat is another considerable article, and its exportation constant, being in great demand to the westward, much is also consumed in the district, but it does not form the main part of the food of the peasantry, which is principally derived from joar, bajerah, and some small crops. Agricultural knowledge, however, not being general, pasturage is frequently resorted to where tillage would be much more profitable; farm cattle and implements are both scarce and of an inferior description. The population of the Moradabad district was in 1808 estimated by Mr. Lloyd as follows, viz.

	Inhabitants.
6 principal cities from 50,000 to 20,000 inhabitants . .	180,000
10 large towns at 7000	70,000
10 smaller at 4000	40,000
9430 villages at 120 each	1,131,000
Total .	1,421,000

The principal towns are Moradabad, Rampoor, Nujibabad, Daranagur, Nuggeenah, and Sumbul.

It has been ascertained that during the Patan sway the province they occupied, and which received the name of Rohilcund, was in a highly flourishing state; the falling off may be dated from the Maharatta invasion, from the desolating effects of which, rendered permanent by other causes, the Moradabad district has not yet recovered. The invasion of these plunderers was so long protracted, as to cause a revolution in the agriculture of the country, besides occasioning the

destruction of a large portion of the inhabitants and of their dwellings; and after the annexation of the province to Oude, the revenues being administered in the worst manner possible, the cultivators and farmers were in many parts in a constant state of insubordination. It was transferred to the British government in 1801, but was not formed into a separate jurisdiction until 1804, since which period the progressive increase of the revenue has been more general and considerable than in any of the ceded districts, except Bareily. In 1808, the amount of jumma paid for lands farmed to individuals was 1,624,555 rupees, while that paid by proprietors was only 821,975 rupees. This state of land occupation appears to have arisen from the assumption of the proprietary rights by the Rohillahs, and more especially by Fyzoola Khan, in the territories that remained with that people after their defeat in 1774. The tenures of a great proportion of the rent-free lands, amounting to the enormous quantity of 1,195,640 begahs, appear to be invalid, and to have originated in frauds committed on the public revenue, especially during the administration of the last soubahdar, from the time the intended cession was generally known, until the period of his actually delivering over charge of the country.

Amount of the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, for the financial

year 1215 (1808-9)	2,397,599
Ditto, 1216	2,424,910
Ditto, 1217	2,479,617
Ditto, 1218	2,498,672
Ditto, 1219	2,546,599

The large proportion of capable land which still remains to be brought into cultivation, promises a considerable augmentation of the future revenue, which would probably be further increased by a revision of the tenures on which the rent-free lands, amounting to one-fifth of the whole, are held. Even at present, the district produces more than is necessary for its own consumption, a considerable exportation in consequence takes place.

Prior to 1809, this district was overrun with formidable bands of gang robbers, the leaders of which were more entitled to the name of rebels than robbers, their strength and means of resistance keeping the ordinary police establishments wholly at bay. Many of the gangs had subsisted in the country long prior to the cession of Rohilcund by the Nabob of Oude, and the command regularly descended as a matter of property to the next legitimate heir. At this period one mounted gang was so effective as to be able to cut its way through a detachment of regular troops, commanded by European officers, which had been sent to apprehend them. These depredators, from long practice, possessed a perfect knowledge of the intricate jungles, and of the numerous fords of the Ganges, which

enabled them to cross and return whenever they wished, and the inhabitants were so intimidated by the ferocity of their revenge, that they could not be brought to act against them. One gang could muster 400 men, mostly Jauts, and it is well known with what alacrity a force of this description, or any force intent on plunder, may be augmented in Hindostan. By the great exertions of the British magistrates, especially of Mr. Oswald, these bands, with their leaders, had prior to 1814 been nearly exterminated.

These banditti consist entirely of the Jaut and Aheer castes, who are generally husbandmen or common labourers; of Mewaties, and other persons calling themselves sepoys; and of the poorer classes of landholders, who have become robbers for the sake of plunder, from being related to leaders of gangs, or in consequence of their zemindary concerns having gone to ruin. Between the Jaut and the Goojer castes there exists an animosity of such duration, that its origin cannot be discovered, but it appears to be utterly implacable, descending from generation to generation. A Jaut leader of banditti is consequently sure to find refuge and succour from the whole tribe, while he restrains his depredations and cruelties to the property and persons of their antagonists.

The police of Moradabad labours under considerable disadvantage from the contiguity of the independent jaghire of Rampoor, within the limits of which robbers and other public offenders can evade the pursuit of justice. The Mewaty and Aheer tribes, also, dwelling on the north-western border, had long been accustomed to predatory descents on the plains, which they ravaged, pillaging the villages and driving off the cattle. Military force had often been employed against them, but, owing to the insalubrity of the jungles and other impediments, always without effect, until Mr. Seton tried the plan of conciliating the chiefs by assigning them lands and money, and employing them and their adherents to protect the country they had been habituated to plunder. At first they accepted the occupation rather reluctantly, but gradually became attached, by which expedient the district was relieved, at a very small expense, from an evil which greatly annoyed the inhabitants, and injured the revenue. The average number of prisoners under confinement throughout the year 1813-14 was 391, and in 1816, the number was still greater, the police of Moradabad, notwithstanding the strenous exertions of the magistrates, continuing in an inefficient state.—*(C. Lloyd, Oswald, Sir E. Colebroke, Guthrie, &c. &c.)*

MORADABAD.—This town was formerly a place of consequence, and possessed a mint, the Moradabad rupees being still current in Hindostan. At present it is the residence of the magistrate and collector, with their respective establishments, and is situated about 48 miles N.W. from Bareily, in lat. 28° 51′ N. long. 78° 42′ E.

BELASPOOR.—A town in the district of Moradabad, 38 miles N. from Bareily. Lat. 28° 55′ N. long. 79° 9′ E.

RAMPOOR *(Ramapura)*.—The residence and jaghire of a Rohillah Nabob, where the Pushtoo or Afghan language is still much spoken, and the genuine Afghan manners and customs retained. The town stands on the banks of the Kosilla, in lat. 28° 50′ N. long. 78° 54′ E. 39 miles N. N. W. from Bareily.

This town and district, at the peace of Lolldong in 1774, were secured to Fyzoola Khan, a Rohillah chief, at which time the revenue was valued at 30 lacks of rupees per annum. During the lifetime of Fyzoola Khan, Rampoor was very prosperous, and at his death comprehended a space four miles in circumference, surrounded by a thick bamboo hedge, within which were mud fortifications, and contained above 100,000 inhabitants. On the death of Fyzoola Khan in 1794, his eldest son, Mahommed Ali, succeeded; but was soon afterwards assassinated by his second son, Gholaum Mahommed, who seized the throne. A British force was marched to expel the usurper, which was attacked by the Rohillah army a few miles in advance of Bareily; but they were repulsed, after a severe action in which the former had 600, and 14 officers, killed and wounded. Gholaum Mahommed surrendered soon after; and the accumulated treasures of Fyzoola Khan, amounting to 332,000 gold mohurs (£607,000), were delivered up to Asoph ud Dowlah, who presented the British army with eleven lacks of rupees (£127,000). Possession was also taken of the Rampoor district for the government of Oude, but a jaghire, or estate, was reserved for Ahmed Ali Khan, a minor, the grandson of Fyzoola Khan, of which the town of Rampoor was part, and the revenue 10 lacks of rupees per annum.

By the treaty of 1795 between the Nabob of Oude and Ahmed Ali Khan of Rampoor, under the guarantee of the Company, the last mentioned was entitled to be put in possession of his jaghire on attaining the age of twenty-one; but in the interval the jaghire was placed under a regency, and managed by Nusser Ullah Khan as regent until the 24th of November, 1810, when his death happened. His son Kefayet Ullah Khan wished to continue as chief manager, but the Bengal government thought the young Nabob entitled to the charge of his own jaghire, now that he had attained a mature age. That affairs had been greatly mismanaged was evident from the fact, that at the close of a regency of 17 years, during which the annual surplus of the revenue, deducting the public charges, had exceeded five lacks of rupees, the treasury was found to be exhausted, and the troops and stipendiaries in arrears to an amount exceeding 10 and a half lacks of rupees. This enormous defalcation could not but be highly discreditable to the regent, as the revenues must have been either dissipated or embezzled; but as he

died in very embarrassed circumstances, the suspicion of his having accumulated and secreted a treasure was probably unfounded.

The revenue of the Rampoor jaghire for the fusly or financial year 1215 (1808) was . . . . . 1,069,077 rupees.
while the charges amounted to . . . 1,128,697

Leaving a deficiency of 59,620

In 1812 and 1813, repeated insurrections took place, in consequence of the unpopularity of Hakim Gholaum Hossein Khan, prime minister to Ahmed Ali Khan, the Nabob of Rampoor, this individual having become obnoxious to the proud and turbulent inhabitants of that jaghire. The Bengal government, however, refused to interfere, as their authoritative interposition would have implied a relationship of superiority and controul, which it did not claim, and of which it had always avoided even the appearance. This abstinence, however, was not likely to be of long duration, for the nabob having wholly addicted himself to voluptuous dissipation, and his minister Gholaum Hossein to the accumulation of wealth, the resources of his country in 1816 were rapidly diminishing, and the misery of the people increasing; and in proportion to their poverty they became formidable to their peaceable neighbours within the British jurisdictions. —*(Public MS. Documents, Franklin, Rennell, Elphinstone, &c. &c.)*

NUGGEENAH.—A town, containing 18,000 inhabitants, in the district of Moradabad, situated about 47 miles N. N. W. from the town of Moradabad, in lat. 29° 27′ N. long. 78° 20′ E.

DARANAGUR.—A town in the district of Moradabad, 74 miles N. E. from Delhi. Lat. 29° 17′ N. long. 78° E.

CHANDPOOR.—A town in the district of Moradabad, 73 miles N. E. from Delhi. Lat. 29° N. long. 78° 7′ E.

NUJIBABAD *(Najibabad)*.—This town was built by Nujib ud Dowlah, with the view of attracting the commerce between Cashmere and Hindostan, and is situated 95 miles N. E. from Delhi, in lat. 29° 37′ N. long. 78° 12′ E. In length it is about six furlongs, with some regular broad streets enclosed by barriers at different distances, and forming distinct bazars. In the neighbourhood are the remains of many considerable buildings. A traffic of some extent was carried on here in wood, bamboos, copper, and tincal, brought from the hills. It was formerly also the centre of a trade from Lahore, Cabul, and Cashmere, to the east and south-east of Hindostan. Nujib ud Dowlah, the founder, lies buried here, in a grave without ornament of any kind. The situation of the town is low, and the surrounding country swampy.—*(Hardwicke, Forster, &c.)*

LOLLDONG.—At this ghaut, or pass, the province of Delhi is separated by a

rivulet, from that of Serinagur, or Gurwal, about 10 miles S. S. E. from Hurdwar. Lat. 29° 50′ N. long. 78° 13′ E. The country from Nujibabad to this place is chiefly a waste, overrun with low wood, and ill supplied with water, there being none in the space from Ramnagur to the neighbourhood of Lolldong. The road from hence northward, is by a N. W. course through the mountains. From hence to the Ganges the country forms a chain of close woody mountains, containing a few miserable hamlets, and abounding with elephants, which are not to be found on the west side of the Jumna. In 1774, after the total defeat sustained by the Rohillahs at Cutterah, Fyzoola Khan, with the remains of their army, retreated to this pass, and was pursued by the British to the entrance, where ultimately a treaty of peace and amity was concluded.—*(Forster, Rennell, &c.)*

REHER.—This town stands in lat. 29° 21′ N. long. 78° 39′ E. about 35 miles north from Moradabad, and had formerly a small pergunnah attached to it, of which a considerable portion remains waste and covered with jungle. The word Reher designates a salt earth, and is probably descriptive of the soil as being either nitrous or saline.

SUBBULGHUR.—A town in the district of Moradabad, situated to the east of the Ganges, about 18 miles south from Hurdwar. Lat. 29° 42′ N. long. 78° 8′ E. *(Hardwicke, &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF NORTH SAHARUNPOOR.

The district of Saharunpoor is intersected by the 30th degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the chain of hills through which issue the Ganges and Jumna; to the south by the district of Merut, or South Saharunpoor; to the east it is separated from Moradabad by the Ganges; and on the west from the territories of protected Seik chieftains by the Jumna. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Saharunpoor, containing 36 mahals, measurement 3,530,370 begahs; revenue 87,839,359 dams; seyurghal 4,991,485 dams. This circar furnishes 3955 cavalry, and 22,280 infantry."

Although placed between two large rivers, the Ganges and the Jumna, which here run nearly parallel, at the distance of about 55 miles, this country is not subject to the periodical inundation which prevails in Bengal and the more south-eastern provinces. The surface of the country, however, is a continued flat to the base of the hills, where they rise abruptly, marking the northern limits of the immense plain through which the Ganges flows to the sea. The soil is fertile, and when under suitable cultivation, very productive of grain, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco. Until the ravages it sustained during the turbulent reigns of Aurengzebe's successors, Saharunpoor was esteemed one of the most productive territories in the empire; but from that monarch's death in

1707, until its acquisition by the British in 1803, it scarcely had an interval of rest from external invasion or internal dissention. At present the principal towns are Saharunpoor, the capital, Hurdwar, Ambeta, and Deobund. For the greater part of the year the climate is temperate, and in the winter even cold; but during the height of the summer the heat is intense, and the country burned up.

The territory originally possessed by Nujib ud Dowlah, an Afghan chief, appointed prime minister to Shah Allum by Ahmed Abdalli of Cabul, comprehended the district of Saharunpoor, that of Sirhind, and some tracts of country round Delhi. He was succeeded by his son, Zabeta Khan, who, dying in 1785, was succeeded by the execrable Gholaum Caudir Khan, who, in 1788, put out the eyes of the unfortunate Emperor Shah Allum with a dagger, and tortured, starved to death, and massacred, many of the royal family. A few months subsequent, he was himself put to death with torture, by Madhajee Sindia, who conquered and appropriated the greater part of his dominions.

In 1803, Saharunpoor, with all the other Maharatta conquests in the Doab of the Ganges and Jumna, were acquired by the British government, and in 1804, were separated into two divisions; the northern and the southern, named also the Merut district. The local circumstances of this division are on the whole favourable to the maintenance of an efficient police, the jurisdiction of the magistrate not being too extensive.

The amount of the jumma, or land assessment to the revenue, in the fusly, or financial year 1215 (1808-9) was . . . . . 1,419,314 rupees.

1216 (1809)	1,640,455
1217 (1810)	1,762,535
1218 (1811)	1,893,743

This sum total was greatly augmented in 1813 by the death of Raja Dial Singh, when the large estates held by him on a tenure for life, at the reduced rent of 111,597 rupees, were resumed, and re-let for a five years' lease on an average of 550,000 rupees per annum, being an increase of more than 4 lacks of rupees. The large tract of country comprehended within Dial Singh's lease, and its being a frontier station, rendered the settlement after his death of considerable importance; the inhabitants being comparatively very little acquainted with the British government, or the principles of its administration. The free enjoyment of landed property, as it exists in Bengal, never having been introduced by the renters, was either not understood, or viewed through a confused medium. The consequence was, that on the resumption some disturbances ensued, caused by the tribe or caste of the Goojers, who murdered several of the village accountants; but were afterwards compelled to fly the province by a small party of military,

although they mustered 500 horse, and about as many foot, armed in various ways. Another considerable addition to the revenue accrued during the same year by the devolution of the lands, on his death, held by Row Adjet Singh for 28,000 rupees per annum, which were immediately re-let for 3 years.

For 1813	85,215 rupees.
1814	90,395
1815	96,495

Besides the above sources of augmentation, in this district, as well as in Gorucpoor, considerable tracts of waste land exist, which, if excluded from the operation of the permanent settlement, might, at a future though distant period, be made available to the revenue; and notwithstanding the substantial benefits which in ordinary cases arise from the permanency of the landed assessment, the principle may admit of exceptions, in cases where the improvements have been effected, not by the exertions of individuals, but by the care and at the expense of the government. The exception will also apply where land in an actual state of cultivation bears but a very inconsiderable proportion to that in a state of nature. A case of the first description is exemplified in Saharunpoor, it having been long in contemplation to open Zabeta Khan's canal, by which it is expected that considerable tracts of land, now waste, may be rendered productive, when of course government would be justified in profiting from a source, which had been created by its means. In all other contingencies, the stability of the public revenue, and its punctual collection, tend greatly to the general amelioration of the country and of the inhabitants; and its influence is felt in many branches of the administration, with which, to a superficial view, they would not appear to have any connection. It has also the effect of gradually leading different classes of society in the upper provinces from lawless pursuits, and directing their exertions to the acquisitions resulting from peaceful industry.—*(Public MS. Documents, Scott, Franklin, Deane, Sir E. Colebrooke, &c. &c.)*

SAHARUNPOOR.—The capital of the district and residence of the judge and magistrate, and civil establishment for the collection of the revenue. It is situated about 90 miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi, in lat. 29° 56′ N. long. 77° 26′ E. The average number of prisoners confined in the district jail throughout the year 1813-14, was 268. In 1816, the magistrates of Alighur, Merut, and Moradabad, were directed to send 100 convicts from each station to work on the fortress then erecting at Saharunpoor.

HURDWAR *(Haridwar, the Gate of Hari, or Vishnu)*.—A town and celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, situated on the west side of the Ganges, where it issues into the plains of Hindostan from the northern hills. Lat. 29° 57′ N.

long. 78° 9′ E. 110 miles N. E. from Delhi. Hurdwar, or Haridwara, is also called Gangadwara (dwara means a door, gate or passage). In the Scanda and other Purans it is written Haridwara, which marks a different etymology from Hari (Vishnu), not from Hara (Siva or Mahadeva).

The town of Hurdwar is very inconsiderable, having only one street about 15 feet in breadth, and one furlong and a half in length. The Ganges, after forcing its way through an extensive tract of mountainous country, here first enters the plains. Great numbers are led hither as much from commercial as religious motives, and through this channel the most important places in the Doab, Delhi, and Lucknow, are supplied with the productions of the northern and western countries. The principal articles brought for sale are horses, mules, camels, a species of tobacco (called caccar), antimony, assafœtida, dried fruits, such as apricots, figs, prunes, raisins, almonds, pistachio nuts, and pomegranates, from Cabul, Candahar, Mooltan, and the Punjab; shawls, dootas, and pattoos, from Cashmere and Amritsir.

Spotted turbans, looking glasses, toys, and various manufactures in brass and ivory from Jeypoor; shields from Rohilcund, Lucknow, and Silhet; bows and arrows from Mooltan and the Doab; rock salt from Lahore; baftas and piece goods from Rahn, a large city in the Punjab. The Marwar country supplies a great many camels, and a species of flannel called loi. From the British provinces are brought Kharwa muslins, mushroo (or sarsnet), coco nuts, and woollen cloths. Of the latter a few bales are sent on account of the Company, but the sale is very inconsiderable, and the coarsest only meet with a market. Here are also to be seen some Dutch and Venetian coins.

The northern merchants who visit the fair travel in large caravans, and the cattle brought for sale are used also for the conveyance of merchandize. The north-western caravans generally assemble at Amritsir about the end of February, and pursue the route through the Seik country. On the road they are much infested by freebooters, who frequently carry off stragglers. Those who come merely for bathing arrive in the morning, and after performing their ablutions depart in the evening, or on the following day. At the two annual fairs it is supposed from 2 to 300,000 are collected; once in 12 years, when particular religious ceremonies are observed, the number is computed to be almost a million; and in April 1809, they were estimated at two millions. In 1808, such large bodies of armed men passed through the district of North Saharunpoor from the Seik country, bound to Hurdwar, that the envoy at Lahore was directed to remonstrate with Raj Runjeet Singh of Lahore, on the impropriety of permitting and perhaps encouraging them to enter the British territories without any previous application to the officers of government. During the temporary

Maharatta sway, a kind of poll tax and duties on cattle were levied; but all now is free, without impost or molestation, which considerably detracts from the merit of the pilgrimage.

The horses and cattle are dispersed indiscriminately all over the fair, held in the bed of the river, which at this period is nearly dry. The most conspicuous persons are the Fakeers, of whom there are several sects; but the principal ones are the Gossains, or Sanyassies, the Bairaggies, the Joggies, and the Udassies. The 4 sects are again subdivided and branched out to a great variety. The most numerous are the Gossains, who, during the Maharatta government, were sufficiently numerous to dispute the authority of the place, and not only collected duties on their own account, but regulated the police during the fair.

The next powerful sect are the Bairaggies; but from the year 1760, until the Company obtained possession of the Doab, this caste was debarred from the pilgrimage; and although the sway of the Gossains be over, they still occupy the best stations at the fair. Many of these profess a total disregard for worldly concerns, and appear in a complete state of nature, but among them are many men of considerable property, who assume only the semblance of the devotee, being in other respects well provided with the comforts and conveniencies of life. Some of them follow the military profession, but the greater part are engaged in commercial or agricultural pursuits.

The Gossains, or Sanyassies of the west of India, are the worshippers of Siva or Mahadeva, and have taken vows of celibacy, and are distinguished by a wrapper of cloth dyed with red ochre. Those of Bengal are worshippers of Vishnu, and married. The term is a corruption of Goswami, lord of the bull, an appellation of Siva. The Bairaggies are religious mendicants, who, as their name implies, are supposed to be exempted from all human passions. They are disciples of Vishnu, and are distinguished by two stripes of yellow ochre, or sandal, on the forehead, and a string of Tulasi beads round the neck.

The Udassies are followers of Nanock Shah, the founder of the Seik sect, and are known by a conical cap with a fringe.

The Joggies are votaries of Siva, and have a longitudinal slit in the cartilage of the ear. Another custom prevails among the Gossains and Joggies, which is uncommon among other Hindoos, that of burying their dead. All these castes engage in husbandry and commerce, but the profession of arms is peculiar to the Gossains, or Sanyassies. Some of them never shave, but allow the hair of their head to grow to an enormous length, binding it round their forehead in small tresses like a turban.

No particular ceremony is used in bathing, which consists merely of simple immersion. The depth at the proper season is only four feet, and both sexes

plunge in indiscriminately. Those who are rigidly pious are introduced by a couple of Brahmins, who, having dipped the penitent in the holy stream, reconduct him to the shore. The period of ablution is that of the sun's entering Aries, which, according to a Hindoo computation, happens 20 days later than the vernal equinox. Every 12th year, when Jupiter is in Aquarius at the time of the sun's entering Aries, the concourse of people is greatly augmented.

At the foot of the pass into the mountains there was formerly a Gorkha post, belonging to Nepaul, to which slaves were brought down from the hills and exposed for sale. Many hundreds of these poor wretches, of both sexes, from 3 to 30 years of age, were formerly imported from all parts of the interior of the hills and sold; the prices were from 10 to 150 rupees. The average price of camels from Lahore is 75 rupees, and common horses from 250 to 300 rupees. The merchants never mention viva voce, the price of their cattle, but having thrown a cloth over their hands, they conduct the bargain by touching the different joints of the fingers, to prevent the by-standers from gaining information. Owing to the precautions taken by the British government the fairs have lately ended at Hurdwar without bloodshed, to the astonishment of the vast multitude, who were before accustomed to associate the idea of bloodshed and murder with that of the fair at Hurdwar.

Travelling distance from Calcutta by Moorshedabad, 1080 miles; by Birboom 975 miles; from Delhi 117 miles; from Lucknow 311 miles.—*(Raper, Hardwicke; Colebrooke, 11th Register, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

THE DISTRICT OF MERUT *(or South Saharunpoor).*

This judicial subdivision of the Saharunpoor province is situated about the 29th degree of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the district of North Saharunpoor; on the south by that of Alighur; to the east it has the district of Moradabad; and on the west, the territories assigned for the maintenance of the imperial family, and the domains of various petty Seik chiefs. This jurisdiction is of recent formation and has no separate revenue establishment. In 1813, the arrangements for an improved system of police were much impeded by local circumstances, such as the extent of the surrounding jungle near the town, the military cantonments, and the vicinity of the Begum Somroo's territories at Seerdhuna, which, although within the limits of the district, are by treaty exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil power. The distance from Merut to Alighur is 83 measured miles, through a country covered with short jungle, inhabited mostly by Goojurs.

Another obstacle originated from the hereditary feuds between the Jaut and Goojur castes of cultivators, who, like other tribes in a similar stage of civiliza-

tion, consider themselves pledged to support individuals of their own fraternity, right or wrong, by perjury, rapine, and murder. On this principle, if a robbery be committed within a Jaut village, a Goojur will swear that he saw the head Jaut of the village perpetrate the crime, although the Jaut thus accused was then 100 miles distant from the spot, and vice versa, if the offence took place within the limits of a Goojur village, a Jaut will with the same effrontery impeach the head Goojur. Some of the latter possess tracts of land approaching the size of principalities. In 1814, the zemindary of Nyne Singh extended 40 miles from north to south by 20 from east to west, comprehending 349 villages, assessed at a fixed revenue of only 49,000 rupees, together with eight tax-free villages. The principal towns are Merut, Seerdhuna, Kutoulee, and Hustinapoor, but none of them contain a numerous population, or carry on considerable commerce, which indeed the unsettled state of the country tended to prevent. In 1813, the state of the police in Merut was such as to require increased exertions on the part of the magistrate, and particular attention on that of the government. Crimes of a heinous nature had become of more frequent occurrence, especially highway robbery, and but a very small proportion of the offenders, owing to the facilities of escape, had been brought to justice. With a view to its permanent improvement, Raja Nyne Singh was subsequently divested of the powers of police within his own estate, into which the general system of jurisprudence was introduced under certain modifications. Between the 1st of July, 1813, and the 30th of June, 1814, the crimes reported to the magistrate, as having been committed within the limits of that zemindary, were 117 in number; viz. 6 murders, 15 highway robberies by footpads, 2 cases of wounding, 1 of arson, 37 burglaries, and 49 thefts without wounding. In 1813, the average number of prisoners in confinement throughout the year was 403.—*(Ker, Blunt, &c. &c.)*

MERUT.—This town is situated about 39 miles N. E. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 58′ N. long. 77° 38′ E. It must have been a place of some note among the Hindoos prior to the Mahommedan invasion, as it is mentioned among the first conquests effected by Mahmood of Ghizni, A. D. 1018. Subsequently, in 1240, it is said to have resisted the army of Turmacherin Khan, a descendant of Gengis Khan, but in 1399 was taken and destroyed by Timour. On the departure of this conqueror it was rebuilt, and devolved to the British government in 1803, along with the rest of the district. In 1809, on account of its geographical position, it was selected as a principal military station in the upper provinces, and the seat of a court of justice. In 1812, the sum paid into the Merut treasury for duties received at the custom-house amounted to 307,700 rupees, and in 1813, to 376,000 rupees.

BOORHANA.—A town in the Delhi province, 45 miles N. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 19′ N. long. 77° 16′ E.

SEERDHUNA.—The chief town of the celebrated Somroo Begum, is situated about 47 miles N. N. E. from Delhi, in lat. 29° 12′ N. long. 77° 31′ E. This is the capital of a small principality 20 miles long by 12 in breadth, which with the town was assigned by Nujiff Khan to Somroo, and on his death, in 1776, was delivered over to his widow, the Begum Somroo, on condition of her keeping up a force of three battalions of infantry. The soil produces grain of all sorts, cotton, sugar, and tobacco; and during the winter season the air is cooled by breezes from the northern mountains, which are from hence visible. While it existed as an independent state, there were here a good arsenal and foundry for cannon, which have long gone to decay.

Somroo's real name was Walter Reinihard, born of obscure parents in the electorate of Treves, from whence he entered early into the French service, taking the name of Summer, which the natives of Hindostan pronounced Somroo. He came afterwards to Bengal, and entered a Swiss corps in Calcutta, from which in 18 days he deserted and fled to the upper provinces, where he served for some time as a private trooper in the cavalry of Sefdar Jung, the father of Shuja ud Dowlah. This service he also quitted, and, after wandering about for some time, at length entered the service of Gregory, an Armenian, then high in favour with Cossim Ali, the Nabob of Bengal. In this station, in 1763, he massacred the English captives at Patna. He afterwards deserted Cossim Ali, and successively served Shuja ud Dowlah, the Jaut Raja Jowahir Singh, the Raja of Jeypoor; and again the Jaut Raja, whom he quitted once more for Nujiff Khan, in whose service he died in 1776. His corps of infantry was continued after his death in the name of his son, and a favourite concubine named Zeibul Nissa Begum, but better known in Hindostan by the designation of Somroo Begum.

In 1798, this lady was 45 years of age, and still continues extant. She is of small stature and fair complexion, and frequently admits to her table the higher ranks of the European officers, where they are waited on by female attendants, mostly Christians. In other respects she exacts from her subjects and attendants a most rigid conformity to the manners and customs of Hindostan, and never herself appears in public. When the tide of conquest brought her small principality, in 1803, within the British sway, she managed with such address, that by the conditions of the treaty her territories were exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil power, to the great obstruction of all executive measures of police. Her property in ready money, which is considerable, is mostly invested in the Company's funds, and for her place of residence she usually selects Delhi, where she

is protected by the British power, and much esteemed by the Emperor, from whom in 1808 it appeared she had improperly obtained certain grants of land in the Assigned Territories, in favour of Mr. Dyer, the husband of her grand daughter. This clandestine proceeding, and act of assumed sovereignty on the part of the King of Delhi, being discovered, measures were taken to effect the annulment of all such grants, in themselves illegal, and to prevent a repetition of them. Her conduct in the internal management of her estate was noticed by the magistrate so late as 1816, as being highly commendable, and it is still continued exempted from the jurisdiction of the British civil and criminal courts.—*(Scott, Franklin, Public MS. Documents, Ker, &c.)*

HUSTINAPOOR *(or Hastinanagra)*.—The supposed site of a famous and ancient city, much celebrated in the Hindoo mythological poems, 59 miles N. E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 9′ N. long. 77° 55′ E. Hastinanagara is about 20 miles S. W. from Daranagur, on a branch of the Ganges, formerly the bed of that river. There remains only a small place of worship. The extensive site of this ancient city is entirely covered with large ant hills, which has induced the inhabitants of the adjacent country to suppose, that it had been overturned or destroyed by the termites.—*(Wilford, &c.)*

BULINDSHEHR.—A town in the Delhi province, 41 miles S. E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 25′ N. long. 77° 43′ E.

HURRIANNA.

A large subdivision of the Delhi province, situated principally between the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Bhatty country, and the domains of numerous Seik chieftains; on the south by the Shekawutty country, the pergunnah of Narnoul and the Assigned Territories; to the east it has the Seik chiefs and the Assigned Territories; and on the west the Bhatty and Bicanere countries, and the sandy deserts of Ajmeer. Although situated on the verge of the desert, it is celebrated for its verdure (probably by comparison) from which the name is derived, Hurya, in Hindostany signifying green. In the reign of Acber this district was comprehended in the circar of Hissar Firozeh, and from the number of large and populous towns it then contained, must have been in a very superior state of police and cultivation to what it exhibited when it first came under the British domination. It is also occasionally named, but it does not appear why, the Lesser Baloochistan.

The country known by the general name of Hurrianna includes the pergunnahs of Hansi, Hissar, Mohim, Tosham, Barwallah, Bhehul, Beeree, Rotuk, Agroha, and Jemaulpoor, and, excepting the northern and eastern part of the last men-

tioned division, is an extensive plain, free from jungle, and remarkable for the depth to be penetrated under the surface before water can be reached, and the further west, the more this difficulty increases.

Depth of the water from the surface at various places.

Rotuk . . .	70 feet	Mundahill . .	109 feet
Mudeena . . .	100	Hansi . . .	120
Mohim . . .	90	Hissar. . . .	136

Almost all the villages have small shallow lakes containing water for the inhabitants and cattle throughout the year, but the cultivation is entirely dependent on the seasons, there being at present no artificial means of irrigation, and the wells too deep to supply the requisite quantity. Sultan Ferozè brought the waters of the Jumna to Hissar by a canal, which, during its continuance in good order, fertilized the country, but it has long been choked up and nearly effaced.

The route from the Punjab through Hurrianna is understood to have been formerly a channel of considerable trade between Persia, Cabul, Candahar, and Cashmere, and the southern provinces of India. Even now the open road through the Jeypoor country is not impracticable for troops by the way of Hansi, although ineligible on account of the aridity of the soil, and difficulty of procuring water except during the rains. The only roads of communication between the south of Hindostan and the Seik territories, are through the country of the Macherry Raja by the way of Rewary; through the centre of the Baraitche Patans by the way of Nuonde, Canound, Dadree, Mohim, and Rotuk; and through the northern part of Jeypoor and the Shekawutty country by the way of Hansi. But at a short distance to the northward of Dadree, a road branches off to Hansi, which may therefore be considered as a fourth route for the passage of an army between the northern and southern regions of Hindostan. The deserts to the west of Hurrianna are understood to present insurmountable obstacles to the passage of troops. The possession of this country therefore by the British government, or by a friendly power, is of material importance, and a military post established at Hansi, communicating with Delhi and Rewary, would be sufficient to establish an impregnable barrier between the Seik country and the south of Hindostan.

The chief towns of Hurrianna are Hansi, Hissar, venerable for their antiquity, Rotuk, and Bhowanny; but it contains also a number of large villages, where herds of cattle are pastured, and in the vicinity of which lions are said to be sometimes discovered. Rotuk is one of the best cultivated and least turbulent of these pergunnahs, and is said to have yielded M. Perron 800,000 rupees, although he never established any regular authority in this country. The

assessment of Hurrianna, prior to the British conquest, is said to have been as follows:—

Hansi	135,860
Hissar	100,997
Mohim	123,965
Tosham	26,713
Barwallah	28,445
Futtehabad	29,609
Rotuk	268,919
	714,508

The imports consist chiefly of matchlocks, swords, coarse white cloths, salt, sugar, and a small quantity of rice and spices. The exports are horses, camels, bullocks, and ghee. The eastern portion of the country is inhabited mostly by Jauts, and the western by Rungurs, which is an appellation given to such of the Rajpoot tribes as have embraced the Mahommedan religion. Both tribes are ferocious and uncivilized, and prior to British coercion were in a state of unceasing hostility village with village.

During the flourishing periods of the Mogul sovereigns, this district was of great value and importance, and usually considered as the personal appendage of the heir apparent to the throne; but after the dissolution of that empire, it had never in fact been subjected to any regular government, and although nominally forming part of Sindia's former possessions, and transferred to the British by the treaty of Surjee Anjengaum, the authority of neither had ever been substantially established. The solicitude of the supreme government to dispose of a large portion of its territorial acquisitions west of the Jumna, in a manner consistent with the security of that frontier, afforded an opportunity of combining with the accomplishment of that object a remuneration for the higher class of chieftains, who had distinguished themselves in the British cause. The Hurrianna province in particular was a most inconvenient possession, since independent of the political considerations which suggested the expediency of relinquishing the territories most distant from the Jumna, the regulation, or rather the subjection, of that province, would have required the active employment of a large body of troops.

The Nabob Bhumboo Khan was the son of the late Zabeta Khan, and brother to the atrocious Gholaum Caudir. At the commencement of the war with Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja, he joined the British forces with a body of troops, and on the peace a large extent of country was granted to him, the revenue of which, in 1805, was estimated at three lacks of rupees; but from the burden of this splendid present he soon begged most earnestly to be relieved. The very cir-

cumstances that rendered the relinquishment of the province peculiarly desirable, opposed a material obstacle to the disposal of it, and Hurrianna was successively accepted or abandoned in whole or in part as jaghire, by the Nabob Bhumboo Khan above-mentioned, by Ahmed Buksh Khan, and by the Seik chieftains Bhaug Singh and Bhye Laul Singh. The difficulties which so many chiefs found insurmountable, arose from the martial and refractory spirit of its inhabitants, and from the predatory habits of its barbarous neighbours, the Bhatties.

Under these circumstances Hurrianna was granted as an independent possession to a friendly chieftain, Abdul Summeed Khan, whose personal bravery, activity, local knowledge, and influence, justified a confident expectation of success in the establishment of his authority, and it was expressly stipulated that he should not on any occasion whatever be entitled to require the assistance of the British power. But this worthy person's exertions were found as inefficient as those of his predecessors, for in 1807 he declared himself wholly unable to withstand the hostile incursions of the Bhatties, who had defeated his troops and compelled himself to retreat to Rotuk. In this extremity he requested aid from his European patrons, which was refused, the express object of originally settling the different chiefs in independent possessions to the westward of the Jumna, having been a renunciation of all claim to the interference of the British, to avoid the embarrassment of being entangled by the disputes of their neighbours.

In originally forming the arrangements connected with the disposal of the territories on the right bank of the Jumna, the object of the British government was to combine the utmost practicable limitation of territory in that direction, with the best security on the north-west frontier. The permanent exclusion of the Maharatta power and influence from the north of Hindostan was obviously necessary to the tranquillity of the British dominions; and for the same purpose it was necessary to retain a considerable portion of territory on the right bank of the Jumna, including the advanced post of Rewary, and to grant the western territories, through which lie the routes from the southward to the northward of Hindostan, to native chieftains attached to the British government. If Abdul Summeed Khan had been able to establish his authority in Hurrianna, this plan would have completely succeeded; but the total failure of his attempts to introduce any species of subordination into that turbulent country left it a prey to rapine and disorder, interrupted the communication from the north to south, and alarmed the adjacent states for their own tranquillity.

Abdul Summeed Khan, having spontaneously resigned his claims to this country, was reimbursed with a sum of money to defray the expense he had incurred in fruitlessly attempting its subjugation, and also with a jaghire and pension for the support of himself and family; and in 1809 a report of the resident

at Delhi having been received, the Bengal government proceeded to consider the extraordinary circumstances under which Hurrianna was placed, when the result of their deliberations terminated in a resolution to resume the district, and introduce into it the British authority, with caution and moderation adapted to the exigence and semi-barbarous state of its population.

The province of Hurrianna had, during a very long series of years, been a prey to successive invaders, and the scene of incessant rapine and confusion, and without the slightest vestige of a regular government. Its inhabitants had from necessity become warlike and ferocious, unused to controul, and totally unacquainted with the advantages of a just and peaceable administration. The policy of every power which had yet attempted its conquest, had invariably been directed to beat down by main force, rather than attempt to conciliate their attachment; treating them always rather as natural enemies than as subjects. Their dispositions consequently became hostile to every power that attempted to enforce subordination, expecting unmixed evil from all. Experience, however, has repeatedly shewn that this furious and turbulent spirit gradually yields to a mild and conciliatory conduct, which introduces merely such restraints as are indispensable to the general good, and is employed in confirming and supporting individual rights. Although the benefits of this novel species of government are not at first obvious to them, yet it imperceptibly operates a reform, when combined with a local power of coercion, capable of reducing to obedience those whom it may be found impracticable to conciliate or convince.

Upon these principles it was determined to regulate the measures adopted for the settlement of the country, and to render the existing aumils, zemindars, and farmers, instruments for the establishment of tranquillity; to consider them as parties with the government, not opposed to it, and as interested in suppressing rather than exciting disorders. The country has in consequence ever since enjoyed a tranquillity unknown for centuries, although in 1812, it suffered greatly by a severe drought, and consequently scarcity, approaching nearly to a famine, which caused a considerable diminution of the revenue. Under these unfavourable circumstances a provisional settlement was effected for Hurrianna, with the exception of Futtehabad, for three years, viz.—

For the fusly or financial year 1813 . . .	223,766 rupees
Ditto, 1814	308,826
Ditto, 1815	339,360

(Public MS. Documents, Metcalfe, Lieut. White, Gardner, &c. &c. &c.)

Hissar *(Hisar)*.—The ancient capital of the country now known by the name of Hurrianna, situated about 105 miles W. N. W. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 57′ N.

long. 75° 24′ E. When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, the town and district attached to it were described by him as follows: "Hissar was founded by Sultan Feroze, who dug a canal which brings the waters of the Jumna close to the city. A dervise predicted his accession to the throne, and at his request he dug this canal, which passes through the town of Sirsa, and loses itself in lake Bheda. Circar Hissar Ferozeh, containing 27 mahals; measurement 3,114,497 begahs; revenue 55,004,905 dams; seyurghal 1,406,519 dams. This circar furnishes 6875 cavalry, and 55,700 infantry. It has few rivers, and to procure water they are obliged to dig wells to a great depth."

The remains of this city are of great extent, but now so utterly ruinous as to preclude the possibility of ascertaining its original limits. In 1806, it contained only 300 men, besides a garrison of 200 soldiers, which was soon afterwards withdrawn, and the departure of which would tend to accelerate the total desolation of this once flourishing capital. The palace of Feroze Shah stands in what was the centre of the city, and has very extensive subterranean apartments. Close to the palace is an iron pillar, rather less than that at the Joobut, near Delhi, called Feroze Shah's lath. There are also several large tanks, many wells; and vestiges of the Chittung nullah, or water course, may still be traced.—*(Lieut. White; &c. &c.)*

HANSI.—This town is sometimes called Hansi Hissar, on account of its proximity to the latter, and stands on the channel of the canal constructed by Sultan Feroze, about 92 miles W. by N. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 54′ N. long. 75° 39′ E. The fort is very strong for a native fortification, and is placed on the top of a small hill, which has been scarped and surrounded by a ditch. The town lies immediately to the south, and contains but few houses, although the walls include a considerable space of ground. On the east is an excellent brick tank, and vestiges of the Chittung canal, or water course, are still to be seen. Hansi was captured by the Mahommedans of Ghizni so early as A. D. 1035, and towards the end of the 18th century again attracted notice as the capital of the short-lived principality erected by the adventurer George Thomas.—*(Lieut. White, G. Thomas, Rennell, &c.)*

CLOORGOWAN.—The situation of this town is such, that it is difficult to say whether it belongs to the Hurrianna country, or that of the Bhatties. Lat. 28° 9′ N. long. 75° 6′ E. 20 miles N. W. from Hissar.

MOHIM.—This is a large town, but thinly inhabited, and in a most ruinous state. It is situated about 65 miles W. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 44′ N. long. 76° 2′ E.

BHOWANNY *(Bhavani)*.—This town is situated about 82 miles W. from Delhi, in lat. 28° 37′ N. long. 75° 40′ E. and was within that portion of Hurrianna

assigned in 1805 to Nijabut Ali Khan; but he had never been able to obtain possession of either town or district. In 1809, during a period of profound tranquillity, the inhabitants of Bhowanny made a wanton attack on a British detachment, and killed and wounded several sepoys. Moderate conditions of surrender were subsequently refused by them, and the town was stormed in open day by a detachment under Lieut. Colonel Ball, and captured with the loss of 136 killed and wounded. On this occasion the necessity of proceeding to the assault was solely to be imputed to the obstinacy and infatuation of the inhabitants, who, flushed with confidence from having repelled all former attacks by native powers, imagined the British troops were to be resisted with equal success.

After the surrender, the town and lands attached were transferred to the British government by Nijabut Ali Khan, in consideration of 6000 rupees to be paid him annually; and as he had never been able to raise a rupee of revenue from the inhabitants, who besides infested his adjacent estates, the bargain on his part was beneficial. The agent on the part of government, the Hon. E. Gardner, then proclaimed a general amnesty to the surviving inhabitants, who being certain of equitable protection, immediately leased their lands for 10,800 rupees per annum, which, with the duties on merchandise, &c. amounting to 2000 rupees, gave an annual revenue of double the sum paid to Nijabut Ali Khan, who before received nothing.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

Barwallah.—This is a large brick built town to the north of Hansi, given up to Saheb Singh, the Seik Raja of Pattiallah.

Rotuk *(or Rohtuck)*.—This is a large town, but now mostly in ruins. On the east it has a large brick fort, but the walls of it could not sustain the fire of a six pounder. It stands about 47 miles west from Delhi, in lat. 28° 40′ N. long. 76° 20′ E.

Furrucknagur.—A town in the Delhi province, 34 miles west from the city of Delhi. Lat. 28° 39′ N. long. 76° 31′ E.

THE SEIK STATES.

Nearly the whole northern quarter of this immense province is occupied by Seik principalities under the protection of the British government; for, on the conquest of this portion of Hindostan, it was not deemed expedient to establish a judicial tribunal within the territories of these petty chiefs, government having been always decidedly averse to any interference with their internal concerns and administration; the management of their police was consequently left entirely to themselves.

From the moment the Cis Sutulejian Seiks were released from all dread of

Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore's encroachments, they began to entertain new fears and jealousies; for although they sought the British protection, they never wished for a stationary protective force, their aim being only to deter that chieftain from further incursions by the terror of the British name. Their first solicitations for protection were rejected, and the detachment was marched to Ludeeanna, when some of them had not only recovered from their fears, but had greatly benefited by the bounty of Runjeet. By some we were considered uninvited, unexpected, and unwelcome guests; but they did not dare to refuse what they had once solicited; and, as there were still many who dreaded the future visits of the Lahore Raja, Jodh Singh was the only chief who declined attending on the advance of Colonel Ochterlony's detachment. By the British declaration of protection they obtained all they then desired, and would have wished to be left in every other respect at large, to prey on each other; but had the protecting force been withdrawn, Runjeet would soon have discovered pretexts for war, and whilst the British government would have been subjected to all the expense and danger, these chiefs would have enjoyed all the immediate delights of rapine, plunder, and devastation, with a prospectus of indemnification for their services by grants of territory in the Punjab, when conquered by the British armies.

When all these enchanting visions were dissipated by the treaty concluded with Runjeet Singh, and a force stationed at Ludeeanna, at once to check his proceedings, and controul their own feuds and predatory habits, they became apprehensive of something mysterious, especially as they perceived no benefit likely to accrue to the British government, heard no demand for tribute, or any exaction which could account for such unexampled disinterestedness. Unable to resolve the difficulty, they began to suspect that the power and the inclination to exercise it would not long be separated, and that the protection of their country would terminate in its annexation to the British dominions.

Among all the lower classes of their subjects this consummation is earnestly wished for, and anxiously expected, and the suspicion of its approach is frequently exposed by the jealousy of the chiefs, who are yet constrained by the force of truth to acknowledge that the occasional interference of the British has proved a blessing. If there still be some who think otherwise, it is only such, as possessing the means, would gratify their inclinations to the commission of rapine and injustice, and it can inspire no very serious regret that persons of such dispositions are restrained from the indulgence of their evil passions. The coercive measures executed by the British government, to compel the restitution of property to the lawful owner, has only excited the grief of the aggressors, and

met with little sympathy, while the justice and disinterestedness of the transaction, have been openly and loudly applauded, or beheld with silent wonder.

The real state of the case is, that these proud and irascible chiefs are glad to appeal to the unbiassed arbitration of a third party, who by the intervention of a salutary authority soothes that pride which would have flown to arms in support of their own villages, although they knew their claims unreasonable, their cause unjust, and their means of resistance totally unequal to cope with the superior power of their antagonist. There are some also hostile to British interference in the internal controul of their administration, because under the name and disguise of internal independence, they hope with impunity to rob their relations and dependants, and, without the risk of investigation, to annihilate the existence of all property, unless belonging to themselves. From some of these petty chieftains on the south-east side of the Sutuleje, holding lands also on the opposite shore, Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore claimed feudal military assistance, which to a certain degree was acquiesced in by the British government, although their attendance might have been interdicted had it involved any political object. By some of these duties are levied on the rafts of timber floated down the Jumna, but the whole amount has never exceeded 5000 rupees.

In 1814, Sir David Ochterlony made a tour among these petty Seik states under the protection of the British government, which were found tranquil and comparatively prosperous, exhibiting a striking contrast to their prior state of turbulence and distraction. For this they are indebted to the detachment stationed at Ludeeanna, which protects their chieftains from external violence, and also from their own remorseless passions of private revenge and rancorous hatred, which would burst forth with redoubled fury were the presence of the coercive power withdrawn.—*(Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

PATTIALLAH *(Pati Alaya, the chief's residence.)*.—The capital of a Seik principality, situated about 117 miles N. N. W. from Delhi. Lat. 30° 16′ N. long. 76° 22′ E. This is a town of considerable extent, and now the most flourishing in the district of Sirhind. It is surrounded by a mud wall, and in the centre there is a square citadel, in which the Raja resides.

In 1812, on account of an habitual derangement of intellect to which Saheb Singh the Raja of Pattiallah was subject, although with lucid intervals, it became necessary for the British government to prevent the anarchy towards which this small state was tending. The charge of the government was in consequence committed to the Ranny by Colonel Ochterlony, whose life was thereupon attempted by an intoxicated assassin, who a few days afterwards lost his own in an attempt to force the guards placed over him. In 1813, Raja Kurreem Singh

was placed on the guddee or throne, vacant by the death of his father, whose insanity continued until his death. Like all others similarly situated throughout India, this petty court is a perfect hot bed of political intrigues and machinations, and the ferment becomes particularly animated on the decease of the chief. Were it not for the strong hand of the superior power, the most sanguinary outrages would be perpetrated; but under existing circumstances the effervescence is restricted to the less criminal employments of writing and talking. In 1814, when Colonel Ochterlony made his tour through this quarter of the Delhi province, he found the young Raja engaged in correcting the abuses which had prevailed in the administration of the deceased Raja Saheb Singh.

In 1815, after the expulsion of the Gorkhas from the hilly country between the Sutuleje and Jumna, the territory of Bughat, (one of the Barra Thakooria, or twelve lordships,) was transferred to Pattiallah for one lack of rupees, with the reservation of 4 pergunnahs, to be appropriated to the maintenance of the expatriated Thakoor; and the fort of Jugguthghur, being surrounded by the lands of Bughat, was also transferred to the same state for 30,000 rupees. It was thought by the British government that great political advantage resulted, from placing in the central district, between the Sutuleje and Jumna, a power which could command a considerable force, and which, having a real and decided interest in in the country, must at all times be anxious for the maintenance of good order. —*(Sir David Ochterlony, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

JEEND.—A town and district in the Delhi province, belonging to Seik chiefs, situated 67 miles N. W. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 6′ N. long. 76° 5′ E. The town of Jeend is about three-fourths of a mile long, and half a mile broad; built of brick, and surrounded by a wall without a ditch. On the north, and within the town, is an old brick fort of no great strength. George Thomas, the adventurer, was repelled in his attempt to take this place, and driven back to Hansi. The district of Jeend is much covered with wood, being the north-west portion of the great jungle, commencing in the Sonput pergunnah. The land is low, and apparently fertile, but it is at present under very defective cultivation. —*(Lieut. White, &c.)*

KITUL.—This is a town of considerable size, being much larger than Jeend. In 1808 it was surrounded by a good brick wall and an excellent ditch, having on the east a large tank and jeel or shallow lake. Within the wall is a high fort of some strength, situated in lat. 29° 37′ N. long. 76° 9′ E. about 44 miles N. W. from Delhi.

CHICHEROWLY.—This place stands six days march north-west from Kurnal, and was taken possession of, in 1818, by a detachment under Brigadier General Arnold, the chief and his subjects having been refractory.—*(Public Journals, &c.)*

THANUSAR.—An ancient town in the Seik territories in the province of Delhi, 83 miles N. by E. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 29° 55′ N. long. 76° 48′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows, "Tahnesir is held sacred by the Hindoos. The river Sursuty (Sereswati), to which the Hindoos pay great adoration, runs past it. In the vicinity is a lake called Khoorket, to which pilgrims come from far to worship and bestow charity. This was the scene of the war of the Mahabharat. Out of the immense multitude of forces on the one side, and the troops of Judhishter on the other, only 12 persons survived the slaughter, of which number four were of the army of Doorjodhen, namely Keeracharij, a Brahmin who had been preceptor to the Cooroos and the Pandoos. 2. Ashotaman, who had exercised the same office. 3. Keerut Birman, of the Jadown tribe. 4. Sujey, who drove the chariot of Driterashter. The other eight survivors were of the Pandoo army, viz. the five Pandoo brothers: Satick, of the Jadown tribe; Hujtash, who was Doorjodhen's brother by another mother; and Krishna, whose fame is so universal as to render any account of him unnecessary. Near to this place stood the ancient city of Hustnapoor."

When taken by Mahmood of Ghizni in A. D. 1011, Thanusar was still the capital of a powerful kingdom. At present it is the next town of importance to Pattiallah in the Sirhind district, and is still held in high religious veneration by the Hindoos. The inhabitants of the surrounding country are chiefly Jauts, many of whom have become Seiks, and there are also a few Rajpoots of low caste.—*(Sir John Malcolm, George Thomas, &c.)*

MUSTAPHABAD *(Mustapha-abad)*.—A considerable Seik town, situated about 104 miles N. from the city of Delhi, in lat. 30° 10′ N. long. 77° 6′ E.

SHAHABAD.—A town in the Delhi province, 101 miles N. by W. from the city of Delhi. Lat. 30° 8′ N. long. 79° 50′ E.

AMBAHLAH *(Ambalaya)*.—The capital of a small Seik state, situated in lat. 30° 19′ N. long. 76° 44′ E. 115 miles N. by W. from Delhi.

SIRHIND.—A town in the north western extremity of the Delhi province about 140 miles N. from the city, in lat. 30° 35′ N. long. 76° 19′ E. When Abul Fazel wrote in 1582, Sirhind was the capital of a district described by him in the following terms: "Circar Sirhind, containing 33 mahals; measurement 7,729,466 begahs; revenue 160,790,594 dams; seyurghal 11,697,338 dams. This circar furnishes 9,225 cavalry and 55,700 infantry."

The south western portion of Sirhind is extremely barren, being covered with low scrubby wood, and in many places destitute of water. About A. D. 1357, Feroze the Third cut several canals from the Jumna and the Sutuleje, in order to fertilize this naturally arid country, and afterwards built a fort at Sirhind; but both the fort and canals have long been in ruins. The city of Sirhind was for-

merly the capital of this territory, but is now a scene of desolation, and has probably never recovered from the dreadful ravages of the Seik Bairaggie Banda, about 1707, who is stated to have then not only destroyed the mosques, but to have levelled its palaces and public buildings with the ground. Pattiallah, already described, is the largest and most flourishing town, and next to it is Thanusar, which is still held in high religious veneration by the Hindoos, as also the feeble current (now almost extinct) of the Sereswati river. At present, the greatest portion of what was the Sirhind circar, is possessed by the Malawa Singh class of Seiks. In March, 1809, Raja Runjeet Singh, of Lahore, gave up the forts he had occupied on the left bank of the Sutuleje, although he still exacts certain feudal duties from such chiefs as also held lands on the north western side of that river.

By Abul Fazel, Sirhind is described as a famous city, containing the delightful gardens of Hafez Rehneh, but it now presents only a shapeless mass of extensive ruins. In the neighbourhood are numerous mangoe groves, and also some excellent tanks of water. Between this town and Delhi are extensive plains, containing the towns of Paniput and Kurnal, and renowned as the theatre of many battles, both in ancient and modern times. Whether Delhi, Agra, or Kanoje, were the capital, Sirhind was the route from Persia and Tartary, by which the conquerors of Hindostan advanced. In 1809, it belonged to a Seik chief named Bingh Singh.—(*11th Register, Rennell, &c.*)

SARASWATI RIVER.—This river has its source in the hills towards the north-east of Sirhind, from whence it flows in a south westerly direction into the large province of Rajpootana, where it is absorbed during its progress through that arid country. It was probably in ancient times of much greater magnitude, as a river of this name marks a geographical division in the Hindoo mythological poems; but there is also another Saraswati, which must have flowed in an opposite direction, as according to Hindoo notions it still joins the Ganges and Jumna, underground, at Allahabad.

MAKEWARA.—A small town in the province of Delhi, division of Sirhind, within four miles and a half of the Sutuleje river, the course of which, 40 years ago, ran close to the walls, but has since taken a more northerly direction. Lat. 30° 50′ N. long. 76° 10′ E. 21 miles E. from Ludeeanna.

ROPOOR.—A town in the Delhi province, 26 miles N. by E. from Sirhind. Lat. 30° 55′ N. long. 76° 33′ E.

LUDEEANNA.—This town stands on the southern bank of a small branch of the Sutuleje, which separates from the main channel ten miles above, and rejoins at the same distance below Ludeeanna. Lat. 30° 49′ N. long. 75° 48′ E. 115 miles S. E. from Lahore, and 170 N. N. E. from Delhi. For four months of

the year the climate is here excessively cold, yet during the summer season the heat is intense, with hot winds, both seasons being in extremes: the rains are also abundant.

In consequence of the extension of the British possessions in 1803 to the banks of the Sutuleje, the line of defence against the attacks of the Seiks became much narrowed, and Lord Lake foretold, that a small corps, well stationed in that quarter, would effectually protect the Doab and adjoining provinces against the incursions of that tribe. Ludeeanna was in consequence selected and fortified, and in 1808, made the head station of a military corps, sufficiently strong both to cover the protected Seik chiefs, and impose respect on those situated beyond the Sutuleje. In 1811, the territory from Ludeeanna to Macowal, which is close under the high range of hills, was occupied by various chiefs who had been in possession many years, but who having also large estates on the opposite side of the Sutuleje, paid Runjeet Singh a tribute or service to preserve the lands immediately subject to his controul.—*(Lord Lake, Sir David Ochterlony, &c. &c.)*

JAGRAM *(Jayagrama)*.—A town in the Delhi province, 23 miles S. E. from Ludeeanna. Lat. 30° 40′ N. long. 75° 28′ E.

HUDEAH.—A town in the Delhi province, 50 miles S. by W. from Ludeeanna. Lat. 30° 11′ N. long. 75° 36′ E. The state of the country in this quarter is but very imperfectly ascertained.

TIHARAH.—A town in the province of Delhi, 27 miles E. from Ludeeanna. Lat. 30° 48′ N. long. 75° 21′ E.

FEROZEPOOR *(Firozpur, the City of Victory)*.—A town in the Delhi province, 52 miles S. S. E. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 30° 55′ N. long. 74° 35′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF LAHORE.

(LAHAUR.)

THE province of Lahore is situated between the 30th and 34th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the Cashmere, and the course of the Indus; to the south by Delhi, Ajmeer, and Mooltan; on the east it has the mountains of northern Hindostan; and on the west is separated by the Indus from Afghanistan. In length it may be estimated at 340 miles by 200, the average breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this province is described as follows:

"The soubah of Lahore is situated in the second climate. The length, from the river Sutuleje, is 180 coss; the breadth from Bhember to Chowkundy, one of the dependencies of Satgurrah, measures 86 coss. On the east lies Sirhind; on the north Cashmere; on the south Bicanere and Ajmeer; Mooltan bounds it on the west. This soubah has six fine rivers issuing from the northern mountains, the Sutuleje, the Beyah, the Ravey, the Chinaub, the Jhylum or Behut anciently the Bedusta, and the Sinde or Indus.

"This soubah is very populous, highly cultivated, and exceedingly healthy. The cultivated lands are chiefly supplied with water from wells. The winter is much severer here than in any other part of Hindostan, although considerably milder than in Persia or Tartary. Ice, brought from the northern mountains, is sold the whole year. The horses resemble Irakies, and are very fine. In some parts, by sifting and washing the sands of the rivers, they obtain gold, silver, copper, rowey, tin, brass, and lead.

"This soubah contains 5 doabs, sub-divided into 234 pergunnahs. The measured lands are 16,155,643 begahs; amount of revenue 569,458,423 dams; out of which 9,865,594 dams are seyurghal. It has 54,480 cavalry, and 426,086 infantry. The province is sub-divided into the following districts, viz. 1, Doabeh Beyt Jallinder; 2, Doabeh Barry; 3, Retchnabad; 4, Doabeh Jennet; and 5, Sinde Sagor." The district here named Retchnabad comprehends the country between Ravey and the Chinaub; and the Doabeh Jennet, that between the Chinaub and

the Jhylum. The principal geographical and territorial sub-divisions of modern times are the following:

1, The Punjab, comprehending
2, Doabeh Sinde Sagor,
3, Doabeh Jinhut,
4, Doabeh Rechna,
5, Doabeh Barry,
6, Doabeh Jallinder.
7, The Kohistan of Lahore, comprehending
8, Kishtewar,
9, Chandahnee,
10, Jamboe,
11, Kangrah, &c.

The province of Lahore consists of two portions nearly equal; the Kohisthan, or mountainous tract, which occupies the whole north-eastern division, and the flat country to the south-west, better known by the name of Punjab, from the five celebrated rivers by which it is intersected; and this appellation is frequently, but erroneously, applied to the whole province. The climate of course varies, and in the winter season a degree of cold, little inferior to that of the central regions of Europe, is experienced in the northern quarter. The principal rivers are the Indus, the Sutuleje or Hysudrus, the Beyah or Hyphasis, the Ravey or Hydraotes, the Chinaub or Acesines, and the Jhylum or Hydaspes, which will be described hereafter.

To the south and south-west of Cashmere is a mountainous country, which bounds the Punjab, a low country on the north east, and supplies its streams with water; for of the five celebrated rivers intersecting that country, the Jhylum (Hydaspes) alone flows from Cashmere, and has its source in the more remote region of the north. This mountainous tract contains many principalities, the most noted of which are Kishtewar, Chandahnee, Jamboe or Jummoo, Khussial, Dung Akhoroor, Rajoor and Proaneh. The chiefs of these communities are Rajas of Hindoo descent, who retain their Hindoo title, although both they and their subjects have mostly adopted the Mahommedan persuasion. Their territories, being extremely precipitous, are but thinly inhabited. In their language and manners the natives resemble the Cashmerians; but with a considerable mixture of the more southern nations.

In the Kohistan, or Highlands, between the Jamboe and Cashmere many pines are seen, which grow on the face of the mountains; and the willow is also a tree of frequent occurrence. The resinous part of the fir, cut into slips, supplies the common uses of the lamp, but the method of extracting its turpentine and tar is not known or practised by the natives. The climate of the northern districts of Lahore is not favourable to fruits and vegetables, being too hot for the Persian productions, and not sufficiently warm to mature those of India. In many parts of this province large beds of fossil salt are found, and the mountainous tracts, were they investigated, would probably prove rich in all sorts of minerals. At

present the sides of the inhabited mountains, when properly cultivated, produce wheat, barley, and a variety of small grains. The spaces under tillage project from the body of the hill in separate flats, in the form of a range of semicircular stairs. The soil, which is strong and productive, has been propelled into these projections by the rains, which fall with great violence in this quarter from June until October, and the earth washed down is preserved in that state by buttresses of loose stones. Rice is also cultivated in the narrow vallies, but not in great quantities, nor is it the usual food of the inhabitants, who chiefly subsist on wheat, bread, and peas made into a thick soup.

That part of the province denominated the Punjab, is by far the most productive, but its fertility has been too much extolled; for except in the immediate vicinity of rivers, no portion of it is to be compared with the British provinces in Upper Hindostan, and still less with Bengal, which it has been said to resemble. The greater proportion of the soil is sandy, and contains few of the ingredients which assist in the nourishment of vegetables. Of the 4 divisions of the Punjab east of the Jhylum or Hydaspes, the two nearest to that river are chiefly pastured by herds of oxen and buffaloes; and that most to the east, towards the Sutuleje, although the most sterile in quality, is the best cultivated. The two first are quite flat, the last wavy; but there is not a hill to the east of the Jhylum; the trees are few, and cultivation extremely scanty. It, however, contains many fine villages, and some large towns; but the latter, with the exception of Amritsir, the holy city of the Seiks, are mostly tending to decay. Large droves of horses, of a tolerable good quality, are pastured in the country between the Indus and the Jhylum; and fossil salt is incredibly abundant. The greatest breadth of the last mentioned Doab (by Abul Fazel named Sinde Sagor) is about the parallel of Attock, from thence to Jellalpoor Ghaut, and may be estimated at 114 miles; from the city of Mooltan to Udoo Kote on the Indus, is about 33 miles. The northern portion of this Doab from lat. 33° is hilly, and to the south a desert, with the exception of a few miles contiguous to the banks of the rivers, liable to inundation. The agricultural productions of the Punjab in general are wheat, barley, rice, pulse of all sorts, sugar-cane, tobacco, and various fruits; but there is rarely much redundance for exportation.

An open regular trade with the Punjab, from the other parts of Hindostan, has in a great measure ceased; but petty merchants, by applying for passports to the different chiefs of the Seik territories, previous to entering their boundaries, are generally supplied with them, through which medium a trifling commerce is carried on. The exports from Lahore to the countries west of the Indus, are sugar, rice, indigo, wheat, and white cotton cloths. The imports from these countries are swords, horses, fruit, lead, and spices. The exports to

Cashmere are nearly the same as to Persia; the imports being shawls, a variety of cloths, saffron, and fruits. With the inhabitants of the Kohistan, or mountainous division of Lahore, the traders of the Punjab exchange cloth, matchlocks, and horses, for iron and other smaller commodities. From the south are imported sulphur, indigo, salt, lead, iron, European coarse broad cloth, and spices. The exports to the south are horses, camels, sugar, rice, white cloth, matchlocks, swords, and bows and arrows. The trade is not carried on by any particular route, but depends on the characters of the chiefs through whose districts it must penetrate to reach its destination. The most considerable proportion of this traffic is carried on from Amritsir by the way of Matchwaywara to Duttyala southward; by the way of Hansi, Rajghur, and Oreecha, into the western part of Rajpootana; and by the way of Kitul, Jeend, Dadree, and Kurnal, towards Delhi.

Commerce is, however, much obstructed; heavy duties being levied on it by all the petty rulers through whose domains it passes, which formerly caused great part of the Cashmere trade to be carried to Hindostan Proper, by the difficult and mountainous route of Jamboe, Nadone, and Serinagur. The Seik chiefs, however, in the Punjab, have of late discovered their error, and have endeavoured by a more strict administration of justice, and affording facilities, to restore confidence to the merchant.

In the collection of the revenue, the general rule with the Seiks of the Punjab is, that the chief receives one half of the produce; but the whole of this is never levied, the ryots, or cultivators, being treated with great indulgence. The administration of justice among this sect is in a very rude and imperfect state; for although their scriptures inculcate general maxims of justice, they are not considered as books of law. Trifling disputes are settled by the heads of villages, by the chiefs, or by arbitration. This last is called panchayet, or a court of five, and is a court of arbitration assembled in every part of India under a native government; and as they are always chosen from men of the best reputation in the place where they meet, this court has a high character for justice. Murder is sometimes punished by the chiefs, but more frequently by the relations of the deceased.

The inhabitatants of the Lahore province are composed of Seiks, Singhs, Jauts, Rajpoots, and other Hindoos of lower castes, and Mahommedans. The inhabitants professing the Mahommedan religion remaining within the Seik territories in the province of Lahore are very numerous, but all poor, and appear an oppressed, despised race. They till the ground, and are employed to carry burthens, and do all sorts of hard labour. They are not allowed to eat beef, or to say their prayers aloud, and but seldom permitted to assemble in their

mosques, of which few have escaped destruction. The lower order of Seiks are more fortunate: they are protected from the tyranny and violence of their chiefs by the precepts of their common religion, and by the condition of their country, which enables them to abandon, whenever they chuse, a leader whom they dislike; and the distance of a few miles generally places them under the protection of his rival or enemy. In the Punjab, it is reckoned that one third of the whole inhabitants are Singhs, who continue to receive converts, but a considerable number of the cultivators are Jauts. The natives are composed of different classes of Hindoos, and little difference of manner is seen between them and the southern Hindoos, except such as may be supposed to arise from a residence in a low or mountainous country. The women in the hilly tract towards the east have an olive complexion, are delicately formed; their manners are also under less constraint than to the south in Hindostan Proper. Among these mountaineers, the goitre, or swelled throat, is very common.

On the north western borders of Lahore, the inhabitants are chiefly Afghans, who live in small forts or walled villages, and entertain mutual dread and distrust of each other. This quarter is subject to much desolation from the depredations of the Seiks on the Attock, and on the adjacent districts. The Seik inhabitants between the Ravey and Chinaub are called Dharpi Singhs, from the country being called Dharpi. The Dhanegeb Singhs are beyond the Chinaub, but within the Jhylum river. In the Punjab the natives are remarkable for well arranged white teeth, paun and betel being not so much used here as in other parts of India. In this quarter of Lahore it is no uncommon event to meet with a fakeer (a devotee or mendicant) travelling about in a palanquin, clad in silk, with numerous attendants of horse and foot to protect his sacred person. These fanatics are extremely proud, and in general insolent and abusive to Europeans. The Punjabee provincial dialect is generally spoken in the country, and is a mixture of Hindostany and Persian, without any peculiar written character. When analyzed by the missionaries, it was found to contain 30 of 32 words, the same as in the Hindostany specimen of the Lord's prayer.

The Seiks, or rather Singhs, have in general the Hindoo cast of countenance, somewhat altered by their long beards, are as active as the Maharattas, and much more robust, from their living fuller and enjoying a healthier climate. Their courage is equal to that of any of the natives of India, and when wrought upon by prejudice or religion is quite desperate. They are all horsemen, and have no infantry in their own country except for the defence of their towns and villages, yet they generally serve as infantry in foreign armies. They are bold and rather rough in their address, speaking invariably in a loud bawling tone of voice.

The Seik merchant, or cultivator, if he be a Singh, differs little in character from the soldier, as he wears arms, and is, from education, very prompt to use them. The Khalasa Seiks (the original followers of Nanak) differ widely from the Singhs. They are full of intrigue, pliant, versatile, and insinuating, and have all the arts of the lower class of Hindoos employed in business, whom they also so much resemble in their dress and other particulars, that it is difficult to distinguish them. The three religious tribes of Acalies, Shauhed, and Nirmala, have each their peculiar manners. The Nanak putras, or descendants of Nanak, have the character of a mild, inoffensive race.

The Seik Hindoo converts continue all those civil and religious customs of the tribes to which they belonged, that they can practise without infringing the tenets of Nanak, or the institutions of Gooroo Govind. They are very strict respecting diet and intermarriages. The Mahommedan converts who become Seiks intermarry with each other, but are allowed to preserve none of their usages, being obliged to eat hog's flesh, and abstain from circumcision. The Seiks, or Singhs, are forbidden the use of tobacco, but are allowed to indulge in spirituous liquors, which they drink to excess; it being rare to see a Seik soldier after sunset quite sober. The use of opium and bang (another intoxicating drug) is also quite common. The military Seiks permit the hair of the head and beard to grow to a great length, and are remarkably fond of the flesh of the jungle hog, which is food permitted by their law. The conduct of the Seiks to their women differs in no material respect from that of the tribes of Hindoos and Mahommedans, from which they are descended, but may be considered more lax than that of their ancestors. The horsemen were formerly well mounted from the Lacky jungle, but they are not now better mounted than the Maharattas.

Seik, properly Sikh, or Siksha, is a Sanscrit word, signifying disciple or devoted follower. Nanak, the founder of the Seik sect, was born at the village of Tulwundy, in the district of Bhatti and province of Lahore, A. D. 1419, and died at Kirthipoor Dehra on the banks of the Ravey. He left two sons, from whom are descended 1400 families called Shahzadehs, who are much respected and live at Dera in the Punjab. A saffron impression of the hand of Nanak, is still a form of oath among the Seiks. He was succeeded by

2. Gooroo Angud, who wrote some chapters of the sacred book, and died A. D. 1552.

3. Amera Dass, a Khetri, succeeded him, and died A. D. 1574.

4. Ramdass, the son of Amera Dass followed. This Gooroo, or spiritual instructor, improved the town of Chak, and the famous tank or reservoir, which he called Amritsir, a name signifying the water of immortality. He died in 1581, and was succeeded by his son,

5. Arjoonmal, who rendered himself famous by compiling the Adi Granth, or first sacred book of the Seiks; and thus gave a consistent form and order to their religion. He died in 1606, and was followed by his son,

6. Hurgovind. This was the first warlike Gooroo, or priest militant, and is said first to have allowed his followers to eat the flesh of animals, with the exception of the cow. He died in 1644, and had for his successor his grandson,

7. Hurray, whose rule was tranquil, and who in 1661, was succeeded by his son,

8. Hurkrishna, who died at Delhi A. D. 1664, after much opposition his successor was

9. Tegh Bahauder. This Gooroo was put to death by the Mogul government in 1675, after having resided for some time in obscurity at Patna.

10. Gooroo Govind, the son of Tegh Bahauder, followed. This chief new modelled the whole government of the Seiks, and converted them into a band of ferocious soldiers, changing their name from Seik to Singh, which signifies a lion, and had before been exclusively assumed by the Rajpoot tribes. He ordered his followers not to cut off the hair of their heads or shave their beards. After much skirmishing with the Mahommedans, during the reign of Aurengzebe, he was expelled from Lahore, and is supposed to have died A. D. 1708, at Naded in the Deccan. The Seiks consider Gooroo Nanak as the founder of their religion, but revere Gooroo Govind as the founder of their worldly greatness and political independence. He was the last acknowledged Gooroo, or religious ruler of the Seiks, and at present every petty Raja in his own dominions is considered as the head both of the church and state, and most of them have become violent persecutors.

During the confusion which took place in Hindostan after the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, the Seiks grew in strength, and devastated the country under the command of a Bairaggi or religious mendicant, named Banda, who was at length taken prisoner by the Emperor's officers and executed. There still remains a sect of Seiks named Bandai, or followers of Banda, who chiefly reside in Mooltan, Tatta, and other cities adjacent to the Indus.

From the death of Banda (about 1711) until the invasion of India by Nadir Shah in 1739, we hear nothing of the Seiks, who are related then to have plundered that conqueror's baggage. In the subsequent dissolution of government, which took place in Lahore, and the adjacent provinces, the Seik power strengthened; and during the first Abdalli Afghan invasion in 1746, they made themselves masters of a considerable portion of the Doab of the Ravey and Jallinder. They received many severe checks from the Mahommedans, and in 1762 and 1763 were almost exterminated by Ahmed Shah Abdalli, and the Afghans;

but from their determined spirit of resistance they always rose superior to their misfortuness, until they acquired and consolidated their present possessions.

For many years prior to the appearance of Runjeet Singh, they were mostly occupied by petty internal feuds transmitted from father to son, and independent of the comparatively larger conquest in which the greater chiefs were occasionally engaged, every village became an object of dispute, contested by brothers or near relations. In this state of anarchy, their power became so little formidable, that about 1803, General Perron, who commanded a body of troops in the service of Dowlet Row Sindia, intended to have subdued the Punjab, and made the Indus the boundary of his possessions. When Holkar fled across the Sutuleje in 1805, he was pursued there by Lord Lake, upon which occasion a national council of Seik chiefs was called to avert the danger, but very few of the leaders attended, and many of the absentees notified their intention of resisting the resolutions of this council.

It is difficult to ascertain the population of the Seik territories. They formerly boasted that they were able to raise 100,000 horse, and if it were possible to assemble every Seik horseman, this might not be an exaggeration; but there is no chief among them except Runjeet Singh, that could bring an effective body of 4,000 into the field; and in 1805, this prince's force did not amount to 8,000 men. By the arrangements of that and subsequent years a grand political separation was made of the nation, which became divided into two distinct communities; those to the south of the Sutuleje under the British protection, (already described); and those to the north of that river, nominally independent, but in reality all subjugated by Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore city, of whom further mention will be made under that head. To the incessant encroachments of this prince, these petty leaders opposed neither union nor policy. In every skirmish or action, and in every trifling siege, they evince the most determined disregard of personal danger; yet having made a short resistance, and unnecessarily sacrificed a number of lives, they seem to think they have done all that is required, and then yield an unconditional submission with as little solid reason, as they at first commenced hostilities.

The Lahore province from its commanding situation possesses many advantages over the rest of India, and under a proper form of government would alone be sufficient to constitute the basis of a powerful and civilized kingdom. The productive powers of the southern half, intersected by five noble rivers, might be renovated, and the natural strength and temperate climate of the northern unite circumstances in its favour that are generally in collision. These advantages, added to its geographical position at the only assailable quarter, point it out as the quarter from whence Hindostan is to be ruled, conquered and defended. It

is nevertheless in a most miserable state of cultivation, and one of the most thinly inhabited of India; the total population dispersed over a surface of near 70,000 square miles probably not exceeding in the aggregate four millions of souls.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Forster, F. Buchanan, Sir D. Ochterlony, Elphinstone, Macartney, &c. &c. &c.)*

LAHORE.—The capital of Raja Runjeet Singh, the modern chieftain of the Seiks, situated on the south side of the Ravey river. Lat. 31° 36′ N. long. 74° 3′ E. The river is here about 300 yards wide, but the stream is not deep or rapid, except during the height of the rains. The old fort is a place of no strength, without a ditch or any defences for cannon. The walls are lofty and decorated on the outside, but hastening to ruin, as are most of the private buildings. Lahore is notwithstanding still a town of considerable size, with a good bazar, but it is not inhabited by wealthy people: on account of the frequent sackings it has sustained, they have migrated for safety to Amritsir.

The palace was originally founded by Acber, and enlarged by his successors. Across the Ravey at Shah Durra, about two miles north of Lahore, stands the celebrated mausoleum of Jehangeer, within a wall of nearly 600 yards square. It is a magnificent building, 66 paces on each side, and still in very good condition, but much inferior to the Tauje Mahal at Agra. To the southward of this, in the open plain, is to be seen the tomb of Noor Jehan Begum, a building 36 paces square. In 1812, Runjeet Singh had built and was building a very thick wall and rampart round the city, with a deep broad ditch. The palace had also been nearly surrounded by a deep and broad ditch; the whole faced with brick, and the earth thrown inwards, so as to form a broad rampart with bastions at intervals. These works, however, appear to be commanded from the city by heaps of ruins, which would require to be removed. The tomb of Jehangeer and its enclosure are capable of containing sufficient grain and liquor for a month's expenditure of a large army; and although the city generally is verging to decay, the domes and minarets of the mosques, the lofty walls of the fort, the splendid mausoleum of Jehangeer, and the numberless inferior tombs and temples that surround the town, still render it an object of curiosity and admiration.

Lahore was first taken by Sultan Baber, A. D. 1520, and was for some time the seat of the Mogul government. Since that period it has undergone many revolutions, and was for a considerable time possessed by the Abdalli Afghans of Cabul, by whom it is named Sikrei. For the last thirty years it has been under the domination of the Seiks, and has latterly been the head quarters of Raja Runjeet Singh, the most powerful chieftain of that predatory people, and whose sway, like Aaron's rod, has swallowed up nearly all the other petty and

turbulent potentates. From obscure beginnings this chief, by persevering encroachments, urged himself into notice. Yet so recently as 1805, when Lord Lake advanced into the Punjab, he was only one among many. On that occasion the British commander had an interview with Raja Runjeet Singh, which the latter in a despatch to the Bengal government said afforded him so much satisfaction, that he wished to continue a friendly intercourse by letter. He was informed in reply, that it was the uniform practice of the British government to maintain the relations of amity and concord with all states, and that notwithstanding the great power it possessed, and which was attained in consequence of the endeavours made to injure and molest it, it never made any demands on a state disposed to maintain the obligations of friendship. Indeed of this a convincing proof came under Runjeet's own observation, when the army from Bengal followed Holcar across the Sutuleje, where, notwithstanding the rapidity and tumult of the pursuit, not the slightest injury was done to any of the countries through which the British army passed; and which although succeeding to the power of Dowlet Row Sindia in the north of Hindostan, never exacted the tribute paid by the Seik chieftains to that sovereign.

Within the following interval until 1812, Raja Runjeet Singh had employed his time so effectually, that he had subdued the whole of the Punjab; but his encroachments to the south east of the Sutuleje were successfully opposed by the British, who obstructed his design of subjugating all the petty chiefs between that river and the Jumna, by the establishment, in 1808, of a strong military detachment at Ludeeanna. This arrangement inspired him at first with no little alarm: for, being fully sensible of his own utter inability to contend with the British nation, the more strongly he was impressed with the truth of this fact, the more he was inclined to doubt their pacific intentions; forbearance being to him and his counsellors incomprehensible, and the incessant encroachments which had employed his whole life, had filled his country with mal-contents, ready to assist in the overthrow of his usurpation. In 1809 his apprehensions were somewhat tranquillized by a treaty of friendship and alliance then concluded with him by Mr. Metcalfe on the part of the British government, by the conditions of which the latter engaged to have no concern with the subjects or territory of the Raja to the north of the Sutuleje, and the Raja agreed never to maintain, in the territories occupied by him or his dependants to the south of that river, more troops than were necessary to carry on the internal police of the country, and also to abstain from encroachments on the chiefs to the south of that boundary. At present Runjeet Singh is about 56 years of age, and possessed of only one eye, having lost the other by the small pox. In 1818 he had three sons living; Curruck Singh, Shere Singh, and Tara Singh. The solidity and

acuteness of his judgment greatly surpass the general standard of his countrymen, yet he is frequently known to yield his opinion to that of very inferior men, who he supposes are better qualified to decide than himself, merely because they can read and write. In 1816, he made a tour through the Kohistan, or hilly country of the Lahore province, accompanied by a considerable army, in order to levy his revenue from the tributary Rajas, among whom may be enumerated Futteh Singh of Aloo, and the Rajas of Nadone, Cooloo, Moondaee, and Ahmed Khan of Jhung, besides others of less note. In the tract where his authority is acknowledged, he appears to have been always disposed to rule with mildness, exacting a moderate tribute and restoring the native Rajas, whereas the Gorkhas of Nepaul had always ruled their dependants with the most sanguinary barbarity. While pushing his conquests in this direction, he also made several attempts to effect the subjugation of Cashmere, but they all proved abortive. On the opposite side of his dominions he is an unceasing annoyance to the chiefs of Mooltan, Behawalpoor, and his other weaker neighbours, whom he endeavours to subdue by the same melange of force and fraud, which he exercised too successfully against the chiefs of his own nation. His army is numerous, but it is composed of materials that have no natural cohesion, and the first serious check it meets with will probably cause its dissolution.

Travelling distance from Delhi 380 miles; from Agra 517; from Lucknow, 639; from Bombay 1070; and from Calcutta 1356 miles.—*(Sir D. Ochterlony, 11th Register, Rennell, Elphinstone, &c. &c.)*

EMINABAD *(Aminabad)*.—A town in the Lahore province, 29 miles N. from Lahore. Lat. 31° 59′ N. long. 74° 5′ E.

THE RIVER INDUS *(Sindhu)*.

The source of the Indus still remains unexplored, but of late years much information has been collected by travellers and others regarding its course and origin. At present probable conjecture fixes its commencement in the northern declivity of the Cailas branch of the Himalaya mountains, about lat. 31° 30′ N. long. 80° 30′ E. not far from the Chinese town of Gortope, and within a few miles of Lake Rawanshead, and the sources of the Sutuleje. The stream of the Indus has been traced with certainty only to the neighbourhood of Draus, a town in Little Tibet (lat. 35° 20′ N. long. 76° E.), where, according to the testimony of the natives, two great branches join eight days march for a caravan N. N. E. from the town of Cashmere. The left of these branches they describe as being 70 yards broad a little above the junction, and excessively rapid, flowing from the north of east, with a wooden bridge across it. Other accounts assert that the confluence takes place two marches above Draus, and that at, or below Draus,

it is separated into two streams; the lesser, named the Little Sinde, running south to Cashmere, while the course of the greater remained unknown, but was distinguished by the name of the Great Sinde. The main stream which passes Draus, coming from the north of east, is supposed to flow near to Lahdack, the capital of Little Tibet, to which point from Gortope its current is conjectured to flow for nearly 400 miles from S. S. E.; but its course above Draus is wholly conjectural, its channel higher up, owing to the difficult and desolate nature of the country, having never been explored.

From Draus the Indus pursues its solitary course for above 200 miles through a rude and mountainous country to Mullai, where after it has penetrated through the great Hindoo Cosh chain, it receives from the north-west the Abbaseen, and subsequently proceeds for 50 miles through the lower hills of the Hindoo Cosh to Torbaila (40 miles above Attock), where it enters the valley of Chuch, spreading and forming innumerable islands. About forty miles lower down, it receives the Cabul river, and soon after rushes through a narrow opening into the midst of the branches of the Soliman range of mountains. Even when the water is at the lowest, the junction of these rivers, and their course through the rocks before they penetrate the mountains, cause waves and eddies, and occasion a sound like that of the sea; but when their volume is swelled by the melting of the snow, a tremendous whirlpool is created, the roaring of which may be heard at a great distance. It frequently swallows up boats, or dashes them to pieces on the rocks. The two black rocks in this part of the river, named Jellalia and Kemalia, are pointed out by the inhabitants as the transformed bodies of the two sons of Peeree Taruk (the apostle of darkness), the founder of the Roushenia sect, who were thrown into the river by Akhoond the dervise and theological opponent of their father. In 1809, the Indus was forded above its confluence with the Cabul river by Sultan Shah Shuja, but this was considered an extraordinary event, there being no other ford of the Indus known, from the place where it issues from the mountains to its junction with the ocean.

The Indus which above is so widely spread out in the plain, at Attock is contracted to 260 yards, but deep and rapid. When the floods are highest, it rises to the top of a bastion from 35 to 40 feet high, but does not then expand above 50 yards more. Lower down where it enters the hills it becomes still narrower, and at Neelaub, a town 15 miles below Attock, is said to be only a stone's throw across, but exceedingly deep and rapid. From Neelaub it winds among the hills to Caulabaugh, where it passes through the salt range in a deep, clear, and tranquil stream, and from thence pursues a southerly course to the ocean, without being again shut in or interrupted by hills. On the contrary,

after passing Caulabaugh it expands over the plain into various channels, which meet and separate again, but are rarely united into one body.

Below Attock the Indus receives the Toe and other brooks, but no stream of any magnitude until it is joined by the Koorum river at Kaggawala, where its bed is broad but very shallow. The only river that flows into the Indus from the west, south of this point, is the Arul; but it supplies little water, as its stream is mostly drawn off for the purposes of irrigation in the north of the Damaun district, and never reaches the Indus unless when swelled by monsoon rains. At Kaheree ghaut, in lat. 31° 28′ N. the breadth of the Indus at two points was found to be 1010 and 905 yards on the 6th of January, a period of the year when the stream is at the lowest. The deep part of the channel was not above 100 yards across, and only about 12 feet to the bottom, an elephant not having about 100 yards to swim; but at this place the main channel is considerably reduced by the previous separation of several large branches, which run nearly parallel to the main stream. One of them from its right bank is fordable only in a few places, and 202 yards broad. Another considerable branch was 50 yards broad, and there were besides two inferior branches. In that vicinity the banks of the Indus are very low, that is, the inner banks seldom exceed six feet, generally only 4 or 5, and during the rainy season the river overflows them, and expands in many places to 15 miles. It appears evident also that the former channel ran seven miles more to the eastward.

The islands and low country, which are inundated during the monsoon, consist of rich black clay, in some parts well cultivated, while others are overgrown with high grass jungle, in patches of which the labourers have temporary huts. The bed of the Indus is sand, with a small quantity of mud, and its water resembles that of the Ganges. There are many quicksands, and the islands are for the most part covered with long jhow jungle. For 70 miles above Mittenda Kat (lat. 28° 35′ N.) where it receives the Punjnud, (a river formed by the union of the Punjab waters, which, although of great bulk, is much inferior to the Indus above the junction,) the two immense streams run parallel, and at Ooch, which is 50 miles up, the distance across is not above ten miles. In the months of July and August this intervening space is one complete sheet of water, the villages, with a few exceptions, being only temporary erections, and such appears to be the nature of the whole country it traverses, through Sinde to Hyderabad the capital. On the left bank are some considerable towns and villages, where canals have been cut for the purposes of agriculture; but, notwithstanding this superexcellent inland navigation, owing to political causes, there is scarcely any trade carried on between Sinde and the countries to the north. In the time of Aurengzebe a

considerable trade subsisted, which has long ceased. The course and depth of the river have never been examined in a satisfactory manner, but according to native report there is, from the Gulph of Cutch to Lahore, a distance of 760 geographical miles, sufficient water to float a vessel of 200 tons burthen; the passage down from Lahore to the sea occupying only 12 days. Of the five rivers which give the name to the Punjab, the Indus is not considered as one, being rather the trunk, or stock, into which the streams of Cabul and Lahore flow.

Seventeen miles to the south of Bhukor (lat. 27° 19′), the Indus sends off a branch to the westward, which performs a circuit, and rejoins the main body at the town of Sehwan, 50 miles below the point of separation. This branch is known by the name of the Kumburgundee, or Larkhaun river, and at one place spreads into a lake, ten or twelve miles across, situated near the base of the Brahooick mountains. The insulated territory is named Chandookee, and is one of the most fertile in the Sinde dominions.

The Fulalee branch of the Indus, which flows east, is of very considerable size, and encircles the island on which Hyderabad stands. Ascending the Fulalee, from its junction with the Indus up to Hyderabad, it winds so much that although the direct distance by land is not more than 14 miles, the route by water is not less than 24. The depth of water in this part of the route, during the month of August, is from 4 to 6 fathoms, and there are many villages scattered on each side of the river. At its most eastern winding it detaches the Goonee branch, which at one time joined the ocean, about a degree to the eastward of the grand trunk of the Indus; but in 1799, Futteh Ali, a late Ameer, for the purposes of irrigation, threw an embankment across it at Alibunder, and now fresh water presses the dam on the upper side, while the tide flows up to the lower. The river below the dam is called Lonee, or salt. The water in all these minor branches of the Indus appears annually to decrease, and the bed of the stream to become shallower.

After the Fulalee rejoins the Indus, the course is for some miles south, at last deviating to the south-west, in which direction it may be said to enter the ocean in one vast volume. As it approaches the estuary, several minor streams branch off from the main trunk, but they never reach the sea, being absorbed by the sands of the desert, lost in an enormous salt morass, or abstracted by the natives for agricultural uses. From the sea up to Hyderabad, the Indus is in general about a mile in breadth, varying in depth from two to five fathoms; at Lahore Bunder it is 4 miles broad; still further down, at Dharajay Bunder, 9 miles; and at the extreme of the land 12 miles from shore to shore. It is a remarkable circumstance that the tides are not perceptible in the Indus at a greater distance than 60 or 65 miles from the sea. At the mouth the bore, or sudden influx of

the tide, is high and dangerous, and the velocity of its current has been estimated at 4 miles per hour, but this must vary greatly at different places. Like the Nile and Ganges, the Indus is always described as having a Delta, but at present, except perhaps during the height of the rains, the expression does not apply, and the river cannot with propriety be said to have more than one mouth. Neither does the space of land, miscalled the Delta, possess the rich soil and luxuriant vegetation seen near the debouchure of the more sacred stream. On the contrary, as the sea is approached, the dry parts exhibit nothing but short scrubby brushwood, the remainder, and much the larger portion, arid sand, noisome saline swamps, or shallow salt lakes.

In Hindostan there are 4 rivers, which were once much dreaded by religious people. It was forbidden even to touch the waters of the Caramnassa, to bathe in the Caratoya (a river in Bengal called Curvatya in the maps), to swim in the Gunduck, and to cross the Attock. The prohibition may, however, be evaded by crossing the Indus above its confluence with the Attock. In Acber's reign a body of Rajpoots, with their attendant Brahmins, crossed the Indus to chastize some refractory Patan tribes, and Brahmins who live in Hindostan cross it daily without any scruple. There are other Brahmins and Hindoos of all denominations who cross it daily to visit the holy places in the west; but these persons have renounced the world, and retain but few practices of their castes. Though highly respected no body presumes to eat or communicate with them; but they go in crowds to receive their blessing.

This river is called the Sindhu, or Sindhus, in Sanscrit, and Aub Sinde, or the water of Sinde, by the Persians and Abul Fazel, who says that "according to some, it rises between Cashmere and Cashgar, while others place its source in Khatai. It runs through the territories of Sewad, Attock, Benares, Chowpareh, and the territory of the Balooches." From Attock downwards to Mooltan, this river has obtained the name of Attock, and further down that of Soor, or Shoor, but it is generally known to Asiatics by the name of the Sinde. From the length of its course, and the greatness of its volume, the Indus must be reckoned among the largest rivers in the world, many of its tributary streams being little inferior in magnitude to some of the most considerable rivers of Europe, and its channel, for 900 miles from Attock to the sea, presents a strong and distinct barrier to the west against external invasion. It does not appear, however, that it ever attained that celebrity and sanctity among the Hindoos which they have, without any apparent reason, attached to many inferior streams, yet there is every reason to believe, that when first crossed by the Mahommedans, both banks were inhabited by sects of the Brahminical persuasion, of course equally interested in supporting its reputation; but it probably then, as now, flowed through a sterile

uninteresting soil, and never attracted the attention of a poet or divine. As is stated in the beginning of this description, the distance of its source from the sea has never been traced more than 1350 miles, but there is reason to suppose that the total length of its course, including windings, will not fall short of 1700 miles.—*(Elphinstone, Macartney, Pottinger, Rennell, Wilford, &c. &c. &c.)*

JHYLUM RIVER *(or Hydaspes)*.—This river has its source in the south-eastern corner of the Cashmere valley, is there called the Vedusta, and proceeding nearly due west passes the capital of that province, where it is joined by a small stream from the Ouller lake. Twelve miles below that town it is joined by the Little Sinde, and by many smaller rivers during its course through the hills and vallies, which it enters at Baramoola, and 4 miles below Muzifferabad it receives the Kishengunga coming from the northward. Thus far its course is nearly due west; but from hence it makes a great curve to the south, and near the town of Jhylum (lat. 33° 3′) is little known, the country being so excessively mountainous that it is frequented by few travellers. The Jhylum in its course through the hills is very rapid, and from one to 600 yards broad; but it is not fordable at any season, although men and horses have only from 15 to 20 yards to swim. After a course of 450 miles it joins the Chinaub at Tremmoo Ghaut, 20 miles below Jhung, and 100 above Mooltan, and after the conflux ceases to have a distinct name.

Fifty miles lower down, these united streams receive the Ravey, near Fazel Shah and Ahmedpoor, and flow on, passing the city of Mooltan about four miles and a half to the north; the combined streams retaining the name of Chinaub to within eight miles of Ooch at Sheeneebukree, where they are joined by the Gurrah, or united waters of the Beyah and Sutuleje, 115 miles, including windings, below Mooltan, and 60 miles below Bahawulpoor. From this point to Mittenda Kat, where they fall into the Indus, a distance of 90 miles, these 5 rivers, now forming one, take the name of the Punjnud, and for the above distance run nearly parallel to their ultimate reservoir, the Indus, the distance across seldom exceeding ten miles. During the rains the last-mentioned space is one entire sheet of water. This river, the most westerly of the Punjab streams, is by Abul Fazel named the Behut, or Bedusta, in ancient Hindoo mythological poems the Indrani, and is the famous Hydaspes of Alexander. It is reckoned the second largest of the Punjab rivers, its breadth at Jellalpoor (lat. 32° 40′) in the month of August being 1800 yards, with a depth of 14 feet, and the length of its course from its origin to its injunction with the Indus, about 750 miles, including windings.—*(Macartney, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

CHINAUB RIVER *(or Acesines)*.—This river has its source on the southern declivity of the Himalaya chain of mountains, near the south-east corner of

Cashmere, in the Alpine district of Kishtewar, from whence it flows in a south westerly direction until it unites with the Jhylum or Hydaspes at Tremmoo ghaut. Lat. 30° 55′ N.

The Chinaub is the largest Punjab stream. At Vizierabad ghaut (50 miles north from the city of Lahore) on the 31st of July, 1809, it measured one mile, three furlongs, and twenty perches across, fourteen feet deep, with a current of about five miles per hour; but at the same place, in the dry season, its channel does not exceed 300 yards across. There is not any ford ascertained to the south of the hills, but like the Jhylum it is easily crossed at the points where the banks are low and the bed wide, there being only a short distance to swim in the centre. The banks of the Chinaub above, are low and well wooded; but the trees are so small, that the timber for boat building is floated down from the hills, 150 miles further up, where it is abundant. The oblique distance from Jelalpoor ghaut to Vizierabad across the Doab of the Jhylum and Chinaub is 44 miles; the country level and the soil good, but chiefly under pasture.

The ancient Hindoo name of this river was the Chandra Bhaga or Chandra Sarita, and is considered as the Acesines of Alexander. Its junction with Jhylum is effected with great noise and violence, which circumstance is noticed both by the historians of Alexander and Timour. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Another river of Lahore is the Chinaub, called also Chunderbahka (Chandra Bhaga). From the top of the mountains of Khutwar (Kishtewar) issue two springs, one called Chunder, and the other Bahka. In the neighbourhood of Khutwar they unite their streams, and are then called Chunderbahka; from thence they flow on to Belolipoor, Sooderah, and Hezareh."—The course of the Chinaub from the snowy mountains, to which it has been traced, to its junction with the Indus at Mittenda Kat, may, including windings, be estimated at 650 miles.—*(Rennell, Macartney, Wilford, &c. &c.)*

RAVEY *(Iravati)* RIVER *(or Hydraotes)*.—This is the third river of the Punjab, and the Hydraotes of Alexander's historians. Its source has never been satisfactorily ascertained; but it issues from the mountainous districts of Lahore, near the declivity of the Himalaya mountains, from whence it flows in a south-westerly direction, and enters the plains near Rajepoor, from which point the canal of Shahnehr (now extinct) was formerly drawn to Lahore, a distance of about 80 miles in length. This canal was intended, besides the purposes of irrigation, to supply the city of Lahore with water during the dry season, when most of the Indian rivers are from 20 to 30 feet below the level of their banks. At Meannee ghaut on the 12th of August, 1809, when it had attained its greatest height, the breadth was found to be only 513 yards, the deepest part 12 feet, and not above 40 yards across. In the cold season it is here fordable, not

having above four feet of water. In this vicinity it has many quicksands, and its banks are low, but well wooded. The oblique distance from Vizierabad ghaut on the Chinaub, to Meeannee ghaut on the Ravey, is 55 miles. This Doab is flat land with a tolerable good soil, although more elevated than the Doab of the Chinaub and Jhylum.

After entering the plains, the course of the Ravey continues south-west until it passes the city of Lahore, and from thence in the same direction, latterly inclining more to the west, until it unites with the combined waters of the Chinaub and Jhylum, near Ahmedpoor, 40 miles above the city of Mooltan, after which their rapidity and breadth are particularly noticed by the historians of Alexander and Timour. In point of volume of water this is the least of the Punjab, and the whole length of its course, from its commencement to its final junction with the Indus, probably does not exceed 580 miles including windings. —*(Macartney, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

BEYAH *(Vipasa)* RIVER *(the Hyphasis.)*—This is the fourth river of the Punjab, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. The Beas Gunga and Ban Gunga are said to form the Beyah; the first passing Kote Kaungra to the southward, and the latter to the northward in a westerly direction, joining at Hureepoor, one march below the fort. The Ban Gunga is said to separate near the fort, one passing on each side and uniting below so as to form an island. Abul Fazel writes, that the source of the Beyah, named Abyekoond, is in the mountains of Keloo in the pergunnah of Sultanpoor. After issuing from the hills, the current of this river flows in a south-westerly direction, and at Bhirowal ghaut in 1809, when the floods were at the highest, measured 740 yards across, the stream passing with a rapid current, and having a high bank on the right side. In the cold season it is here fordable in most places, but in its bed are many quicksands, and when the waters are low, many islands and sand banks are left exposed. Timber in this vicinity is scarce and of small dimensions, and the boats at the above named ghaut of an extremely bad construction, more resembling rafts than boats. They are made flat bottomed, with one plank all round, and do not draw above six inches water, which is so far in their favour.

The Beyah joins the Sutuleje 35 miles below Bhirowal, near the village of Hurraka and not far from Ferozepoor; after which conjunction, the united streams are first named Beas, and further on Gurrah, by which appellation it is also known at Gordeean ghaut, near Pakputtun, 160 miles above Behawulpoor, and 100 S. S. W. from Lahore. The Beyah and Sutuleje at their junction are nearly the same size, but the latter is rather the largest. Their course also is nearly the same from the snowy ridge 150 miles to their junction, and 260 more to where they unite with the aggregated waters of the Jhylum, Chinaub, and

Ravey. The total length of its course, including windings, may be estimated 590 miles. In 1805, Lord Lake pursued Jeswunt Row Holcar to the banks of this river, when he sued for peace, and a treaty was concluded on the 24th of December of that year.—*(Macartney, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

SUTULEJE RIVER *(Satadru, with a hundred bellies or channels.)*—The fifth river of the Punjab, and the Hyphasis of Alexander's historians. When Mr. Morecroft visited lake Manasarovara, he was informed by the natives in the vicinity that near the south-western extremity of that sacred pool there issued a river, which proceeding in a westerly direction passes along the Rawan head lake, and flowing again from its western extremity forms the first branch of the Sutuleje. Mr. Morecroft, however, was of opinion, that Lake Manasarovara sends out no river or even stream to the south, north, or west, although the impression of all parties seems to be that it has its source within the gigantic range of Himalaya mountains, through which it penetrates, and more recent inquiries rather tend to confirm the assertions of the natives. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "The Sutuleje, formerly called Shetooder, whose source is in the mountains of Ghahlore. Rooper, Matchwareh, and Ludeeanna are situated on its banks. After having passed these places, it runs to Bowh ferry, where it unites with the river Beyah, anciently called Beypasha."

The Sutuleje appears to be the largest of the rivers flowing within the mountains of Northern Hindostan, having been found to be at Rampoor, in Bussaher, at the narrowest point, 210 feet wide in the month of June, and very deep. At Bellaspoor, about 60 miles further down, its breadth is 300 feet. From the lake to its junction with the Beyah may be estimated at 500 miles; thence to its confluence with the Indus 400; to which 500 more being added for its progress to the Ocean, would give a total journey of 1,400 miles, and entitle it to a high station among streams claiming rank from their length of course. Much, however, remains to be ascertained respecting the course of this hundred-bellied stream through the mountains above Bellaspoor, and even between Ludeeanna and Bellaspoor.—*(Morecroft, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

PUCKELY *(Pavali)*.—This district occupies the north-western corner of the Lahore province, where it is enclosed on three sides by the Indus and Jhylum rivers; and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, is described as follows: "Circar Puckely measures in length 35, and in breadth 25 coss. On the east lies Cashmere; on the north Kinore; on the south the country of the Gehker tribe; and on the west is Attock Benares. Timour left a small number of troops to keep possession of this quarter, and some of their descendants are here to this day. Snow is continually falling in the mountains of this district, and sometimes in the plains. The winter is very severe, but the summer heat moderate. Like Hindostan,

Puckely has periodical rains. Here are three rivers; the Kishengunga, the Behut, and the Sinde. The language of the inhabitants has no affinity with those of Cashmere, Zabulistan, or Hindostan. Nakhud and barley are the most plentiful grains here. Apricots, peaches and walnuts grow wild. Formerly the Rajas of the country were tributary to Cashmere."

The whole of this district in modern times lies to the east of the Indus, but there is reason to suppose that it formerly also comprehended a tract to the west of that river. According to Mr. Elphinstone, the territory is at present partitioned into the following smaller subdivisions, viz. Drumtour, or the country of the Jadoons, possessed by a branch of the Yusefzei Afghans. North of it is Turnaul, a woody and mountainous tract, which confines on the north to Puckely Proper, a country of the same description, but much more extensive. It is inhabited by Sewadees or Swaties, and is under a governor appointed by the Afghan sovereign of Cabul. All these divisions stretch along the Indus, until hemmed in on the north by the snowy mountains. The common road from Cashmere to the Indus lies through the Puckely territory; but the inhabitants are so notorious for a fierce and predatory disposition, that the route is generally esteemed too hazardous.—*(Elphinstone, Rennell, Forster, &c.)*

DRUMTOUR.—This is a small valley between the 34th and 35th degrees of north latitude, extending along the Door rivulet, which runs S. W. and falls into the Indus near Torbaila. The mountains are lofty, and produce oaks, pines, walnuts, wild olives, and other hill trees, but none of the European fruits or flowers are found here. The country is tolerably inhabited, and contains some populous villages.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

TORBAILA.—A town in the Puckely district, situated on the east side of the Indus, where it is joined by the small river Door. Lat. 34° 12′ N. long. 72° 45′ E. The Indus here issues into the open country, and expanding over the plain forms numerous islands.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

MUZIFFERABAD *(Muzafar-abad)*.—To the east of Puckely are the countries of the Bumbas, and Cukkas, both Mahommedan tribes. The former is under two or three chiefs styled Rajas, the principal of whom resides at Muzifferabad. Their territories consist of difficult passes, vast mountains, and dense forests; yet they form the only communication between Cabul and Cashmere. Lat. 34° 35′ N. long. 73° 45′ E. 63 miles W. from the city of Cashmere.

The town of Muzifferabad when visited by Mr. Forster in 1783, was small, but populous, and was then the residence of a chief entitled Sultan Mahmood. The face of the surrounding country exhibits a continued view of mountains, on the sides of which patches of cultivated ground are seen, and scattered hamlets of three or four cottages. The inhabitants of the tract denominated Bumbas, are

Mahommedans of an Afghan origin, and usually hostile to the Cashmerians, as being their nearest neighbours. The Kishengunga river runs to the left of this town, with a course nearly S. W. and falls into the Jhylum, among the mountains at the head of the Punjab. A common mode of passing the river here, is on an inflated sheep or dogs' skin, which supports the head and breast of the passenger, while it is impelled and guided by the motion of the legs. The road between Cashmere and Muzifferabad, which is half way to the Indus, trends to the south-west, and leads over a country covered with mountains intersected by deep vallies.—*(Forster, Elphinstone, 11th Register, &c.)*

CHUCH.—This small district, or valley, is situated at the north-west corner of the Lahore province, about the 34th degree of north latitude, and is bounded on the north and west by the Indus, and on the south by the Ghursheen river. This territory, and the adjacent district named Hazareh, contain many fertile plains, inhabited by Hindoos converted to the Mahommedan religion, and named Goojers. Among them also are many turbulent Afghans of various tribes, who are in fact masters of the country. Within its geographical limits, but beyond those of the valley, are situated the towns of Attock and Hussoo. Near Attock the plain of Chuch is flat and well cultivated, principally with wheat; further east the country is of a wavy surface, generally dry and barren, and cut up by deep ravines; but approaching the eastern border is the beautiful valley of Husseen Abdaul.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

ATTOCK *(Atac, a limit)*.—This town is situated on the east side of the Indus, and to this day retains the ancient name of Varanas, or Benares; but it is more generally known by that of Attock. The old fortress was built by Acber, A. D. 1581. Lat. 33°, 56′ N. long. 71° 57′ E.

About ten miles to the north of Attock, the Indus is seen issuing through the mountains by a number of channels, which are reduced to two when it receives the Cabul river. At this point of junction there are many rocks, through which both rivers dash with great impetuosity and noise, but afterwards they collect into one bed, and proceed through the mountains with a deep but narrow stream, between high perpendicular banks of rock. When it reaches the fort of Attock the Indus is about 260 yards broad (on the 18th of June, 1809,) but the channel is too deep, and the current too rapid, to admit of its being accurately sounded. The banks are of black stone, polished by the force of the stream, and by the white sand it contains, so as to shine like marble. In the midst are the famous rocks of Jemalia and Kemalia, but the reported whirlpool does not rage in the month of June.

The modern fort of Attock, the residence of the Afghan governor of the province, stands on a low hillock on the east bank. Its figure is that of a parallelo-

gram, having the shortest faces (those parallel to the river) about 400 yards long, and the other sides about double that extent. The walls are of polished stone; but although the place makes a handsome show, it is commanded by a rough hill, from which it is only separated by a ravine, and being situated on a slope, almost the whole of the interior, and the reverse of the walls on three faces, are visible from the opposite side. The town was formerly considerable, but is now much decayed. On the side of the Indus opposite to Attock is a small village distinguished by a kind of fort erected by Nader Shah, and a fine aqueduct made by some former chief of the Khuttick Afghan tribe, to irrigate the contiguous lands. Notwithstanding the rapidity of the river here, it is easily passed, both in boats and on the inflated hides of oxen.

It is remarkable that the three great invaders of Hindostan, Alexander, Timour, and Nadir Shah, in three distant ages, and with views and talents extremely different, advanced by the same route with hardly any deviation. Alexander had the merit of discovering the way: after passing the mountains, he encamped at Alexandria Paropamisana, on the same site with the modern city of Candahar, and having subdued or conciliated the natives situated on the north-west bank of the Indus, he crossed the river at Taxila, now Attock, the only place where the stream is so tranquil that a bridge can be thrown over it.—*(Elphinstone, Rennell, Wilford, Dr. Robertson, &c. &c.)*

PINDEE MAKOULEH.—A town in the Lahore province, 18 miles E. from the Indus. Lat. 33° 26′ N. long. 71° 59′ E.

HUSSEIN ABDAUL.—By this name a beautiful valley in the north-west corner of the Lahore province is designated, situated about 24 miles east from the Indus. Lat. 33° 55′ N. long. 72° 25′ E.

The valley of Hussein Abdaul was always a favourite resting place of the Mogul emperors, during their annual migrations to Cashmere; but the gardens and buildings have long gone to ruins. The tomb of a devout Mahommedan named Hussein Abdaul, which communicates the name, is partly composed of marble, and stands in a square enclosure. This person was a famous saint of Candahar, there known by the appellation of Baba Wullee. The surname Abdaul, in the Afghan language, signifies mad. In 1809, the hills to the south of the valley of Hussein Abdaul, formed the boundary of the Afghan dominions in this quarter of Hindostan.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

RAWIL PINDEE.—This town is within the Seik territories, in the province of Lahore, situated about 68 miles E. from the river Indus. Lat. 33° 36′ N. long. 73° 45′ E. Viewed from without it makes a handsome appearance, being composed of terraced houses, and is besides of considerable extent and populous. In the immediate neighbourhood the country is open and under tolerable culti-

vation; but from Hussein Abdaul to Rawil Pindee, the country is generally uncultivated, and much intersected with deep ravines. The Mogul emperors cut a road through a ridge of hills, about half way between the two places, which remains in good repair. It is about three-quarters of a mile in length, and paved with large masses of hard blue stone well fitted in to each other. The language spoken here by the Seiks is the dialect known by the name of the Punjaubee; and from this place are usually dated the north western Acbars, or native newspapers, giving an account of the proceedings of the chiefs of Cabul, Khorasan, Cashmere, Lahore, and Mooltan, and their predatory movements; but they never can be depended on, being frequently the mere invention of the writer, who at the same time aims so little at diversifying his fabrications, that with a very little alteration the news of any one year does for that of the succeeding one.—*(Elphinstone, &c. &c. &c.)*

CHUCKOWAL.—A town in the province of Lahore, 68 miles E. from the Indus. Lat. 33° 4′ N. long. 72° 34′ E.

PINDEE DADAN KHAN.—A town in the Lahore province, situated on the north bank of the Jhylum, 106 miles N. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 39′ N. long. 72° 47′ E.

MEANY *(Miani)*.—A town in the Lahore province, 104 miles N. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 36′ N. long. 72° 47 E.

THE GUCKERS.—The Gucker tribe are well known to history from the incessant trouble they used to occasion both to the Patan and Mogul emperors of Hindostan. They once possessed the whole country between the Indus and the Jhylum, or Hydaspes, but have been latterly expelled by the Seiks. They still, however, retain a high military reputation. The Gucker country produces vast quantities of grapes, which there grow wild, and droves of horses of a tolerably good breed are pastured. To the south-east the land is much cut up with deep ravines and torrent courses, and is, altogether, a strong country and very difficult to march through. The floods are so sudden and copious, that the water has been known to rise in these narrow channels ten feet within a minute of time; so that one part of an army may be almost instantaneously separated from the rest. The chief of the Guckers takes the name of Sultan, but the place of his residence has never been satisfactorily ascertained. A great many of the Gucker towns have been destroyed by the Seiks and now lie in ruins.—*(Elphinstone, &c. &c.)*

MANICYALA.—A village in the Gucker district, but now possessed by the Seiks, situated about 72 miles east of the Indus, in lat: 33° 28′ N. long. 73° 25′ E. At this place there is a remarkable structure, which at first resembles a cupola on a low mound, but on examination is found to be solid. The height from

the top of the mound to the top of the building is 70 feet, and the circumference about 150 paces. It is built of large pieces of hard stone, common in the neighbourhood, mixed with smaller pieces of a sandy stone. The greater part of the outside is cased with the first mentioned stone, cut quite smooth, but in some parts it has either fallen down, or been left incomplete. The top is flat, and on it traces of the foundation of walls are discoverable, enclosing a space of 11 paces long by 5 broad. In the appearance of this edifice there is nothing Hindoo, it approaching in the whole much nearer to the Grecian style of architecture. By the natives it is called the tope or mound of Manicyala, and is said to have been built by the gods.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

JELALPOOR.—This town stands on the north bank of the Jhylum or Hydaspes river, which in the month of July, 1809, was found to be 1800 yards broad, with a depth of 14 feet water. The two banks here present a striking contrast of appearance; the left having all the characteristics of the plain of the Ganges, being flat and rich like Bengal, while the right bank is formed by the end of the great salt range of hills, seen at Calabaugh on the Indus, and presents an extremely wild and rugged aspect. These mountains retain the red colour for which they are remarkable, and approach the edge of the river, which being divided by islands, agrees exactly with the description of the ancients, particularly Quintus Curtius's delineation of the scene of the battle with Porus.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

ROTAS.—An extensive but strong fort on a low hill, belonging to the Seiks, in the province of Lahore, situated 107 miles N. N. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 33° N. long. 73° 20′ E.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

GUJERAT.—A town in the Lahore province, 60 miles north from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 32′ N. long. 73° 55′ E.

AUGUR.—This is the name of a modern geographical subdivision of that portion of the province of Lahore situated between the Indus and Hydaspes, but respecting the topography of which very little is known, except that, according to native reports, it contains several salt mountains, with which indeed the soil of this part of Hindostan is everywhere impregnated. It is situated between the 32d and 33d degrees of north latitude, has the Indus to the west, and Sinde Sagor to the south, is thinly inhabited, and contains no town of note. In some old maps it is named Ghepp or Dun Ghepp.

DOABEH SINDE SAGOR *(Sindhu Segara)*.—This name is applied by Abul Fazel to distinguish the Doab of the Indus and Hydaspes or Jhylum, but properly refers to the southern portion of that natural division. In 1582, he described it as follows: "Circar Sinde Sagor, containing 42 mahals; measurement 1,400,979 begahs; revenue 51,912,201 dams; seyurghal 4680 dams. This circar furnishes 8553 cavalry, and 69,700 infantry." The little desert of the Indus extends from

north to south above 250 miles; but the breadth varies, being in some places not more than 30, and in others above 100 miles broad. It occupies all that part of the country between the Hydaspes and the Indus, which is not overflowed by these rivers, and extends from the latitude of Ooch, where the inundated lands of both join, to the salt range of hills. In fact three-fourths of this Doab, including the above-mentioned district of Augur, come under the description of a desert.

Sinde Sagor is in part possessed by the Seiks and partly by the Afghans, the latter portion being distinguished by the name of Leia, under which head further information will be found. Sinde Singh is the term by which the inhabitants of the districts under the Seiks approaching to the Indus are known, and Nakai Singh is the name given to the Seiks who reside in the province of Mooltan. With the leaders of the Seiks in these territories, the extent of their possessions, or the climate and productions of the country under their rule, we are little acquainted; those in Mooltan, as well as those settled along the banks of the Jhylum, are said to be constantly engaged in predatory warfare, either with the officers of the Afghan government, or other Mahommedan chiefs, who have jaghires in this neighbourhood.—*(Elphinstone, Sir John Malcolm, &c. &c.)*

LEIA.—A town and district in the province of Lahore, the latter extending along the east bank of the Indus, and the first situated in lat. 30° 58′ N. long. 70° 30′ E. about ten miles east from the main stream of the Indus.

From Oodoo Ka Kote to the Kahereé ferry (31° 28′ N.), a distance of 75 miles, is a narrow tract contested between the river and the desert. Many parts of it are cultivated, and produce good crops of wheat, barley, turnips, and cotton. The fields are enclosed either with hedges of dry thorn, hurdles of willow, or fences made of stiff reed mats supported by stakes. The houses are built of the same materials, and the farm yards exhibit great neatness, and here oxen are seen feeding on turnips. Some of the dwellings near the river are raised on strong posts, 12 or 15 feet high, as a precaution against inundation, which frequently submerges the country to the distance of 20 and 24 miles from the river's bed. The banks of the Indus are rich, but the land remote from the river becomes a mere desert. Leia, the capital, is but a poor place, not containing above 500 houses, although it gives its name to the district. The usual residence of the Haukim or governor is at Buckor (Bhukkur) near the Indus, or at Maunkaira, a strong fort in the most desert part of the province.

The manners, complexion, and appearance of the inhabitants of this district, are superior to those of the more southerly quarters, and their dress more decent and becoming, leaving no part of the body exposed. Within the limits of Leia there are many large villages, ornamented with handsome tombs, but there are

no towns of note. It formerly belonged to the Balooches, but was afterwards conquered by the Afghans of Cabul. In 1809, the districts of Leia and Dera Ishmael Khan were governed by Mahommed Khan Suddozei, and yielded together about 500,000 rupees per annum, of which three-fifths were paid to the Cabul Sovereign. At that date the governor's military force consisted of two battalions of matchlockmen, 5000 good horse, 30 guns, and two howitzers. Dawira Deen Punnah is a little pergunnah enclosed within the Leia territory, and yields a revenue of 150,000 rupees per annum.

To the north, Leia is bounded by the salt range, beyond which is a rugged and mountainous country inhabited by small ferocious tribes, of whom the most conspicuous are the Kautirs, an Indian race, independent both of the Cabul Sovereign and of the Seiks.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

MAUNKAIRA. A strong fortress in the province of Lahore, possessed by the Afghans, situated in the most desert part of Leia district, 80 miles N. from the city of Mooltan. Lat. 31° 21′ N. long. 71° 15′ E.

DERRIAH KHAN.—A town in the Lahore province, situated on the east side of the Indus. Lat. 31° 53′ N. long. 70° 45′ E.

MEERPOOR.—A town in the Lahore province, 115 miles N. by W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 31° 12′ N. long. 73° 38′ E.

BUCKAR *(or Bhukkur)*.—This is a small but flourishing town, and frequently the residence of the Haukim or governor of the Leia district on the part of his Cabul Majesty. It is situated within a few miles of the Indus, in lat. 31° 38′ N. long. 70° 40′ E.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

DOABEH JINHUT.—Concerning this natural subdivision of the Lahore province very little is known, except that it is bounded on the east by the Chinaub or Acesines, and on the west by the Jhylum or Hydaspes, the oblique distance from Jelalpoor ghaut to Vizier Abad across the Doab being about 44 miles. Throughout its whole extent the surface is level and the soil good, but the country is thinly inhabited, and the land mostly under pasturage. It contains no towns of note, and, like the rest of the Punjab, is at present under the domination of the Seiks.

BEMBER.—A town in the Lahore province, 105 miles N. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 33° 4′ N. long. 74° E.

MANCOTE *(Mancata)*.—A town in the Lahore province, 76 miles north from Amritsir. Lat. 32° 37′ N. long. 74° 55′ E. This place stands on an eminence, skirted by a small river, and when visited by Mr. Forster in 1783, was tributary to the Raja of Jamboe, but has since devolved to the Seiks.

BHIRA.—A town in the Lahore province, 82 miles N. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 10′ N. long. 72° 50′ E.

DOABEH RECHTNA.—This Doab is bounded by the Chinaub and Ravey rivers, and in every respect resembles the preceding, but our topographical information respecting both is so extremely defective, that they are merely inserted here to mark the geographical subdivisions of the Lahore province. The extent of Doabeh Rechtna (a name given by Abul Fazel) is considerable, its cultivation more attended to, and its population greater than that of Jinhut, as it contains several towns of note, such as Bissooly and Vizierabad, and Eminabad.

JUNGSEAL.—A town in the Lahore province, 100 miles S. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 31° 6′ N. long. 78° 25′ E.

BUDDOO *(Buddhu)*.—A village in the Lahore province, formerly tributary to the Raja of Jamboe. Lat. 22° 26′ N. long. 75° E. 61 miles N. by E. from Amritsir. An annual fair is held here on the 11th of April.

BISSOLEE *(Visavali)*.—This town stands on the north-west bank of the Ravey, which is here about 120 yards broad when the water is at t h lowest, and very rapid being so near to the hills. From Bellaspoor, fertile vallies, although not wide, extend to Bissolee, where high hills commence, which extend with little variation to the limits of Cashmere. In 1783, the town was fortified and commanded the entrance to the hills; but at that date both town and district were tributary to the Jamboe Rajpoots, and at the present to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore. Bissolee is situate about 42 miles N. N. E. from Amritsir. Lat. 32° 5′ N. long. 75° 5′ E.

VIZIERABAD.—This town stands on the south eastern bank of the Chinaub, or Acesines, 58 miles N. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 23′ N. long. 73° 57′ E. At some former period it was named Mouara.

SODERAH.—A town in the Lahore province, 59 miles N. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 26′ N. long. 73° 59′ E.

SEALCOTE.—A town in the Lahore province, 72 miles N. by E. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 32° 35′ N. long. 74° 20′ E.

DOABEH BARRY *(Bari, a residence)*.—This Doab comprehends the low country between the Ravey and Beyah rivers, and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, is described as follows: "Circar Doabeh Barry, containing 52 mahals, measurement 4,580,002 begahs; revenue 142,820,183 dams, seyurghal 3,923,922 dams." This country is also named Manjha, and the Seiks who inhabit it Manjha Singhs. It contains the cities of Lahore and Amritsir, and becomes in consequence the great centre of the power of the Seik nation. In 1806, Runjeet, Singh of Lahore, Futteh Singh of Allawal, and Joodh Singh of Ramgadia, were the principal chiefs of the country, but the first since that period has swallowed up all the others. Towards the mountains this territory is described as less

fertile than the Doabeh Jallinder, it must however from its geographical position possess nearly the same climate and soil.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Abul Fazel, &c.)*

BATTALAH *(or Vatala)*.—This is a large town, and stands in an open plain, about 26 miles N. E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 48′ N. long. 75° 6′ E. It is surrounded by groves of mangoe trees and tanks of water, and is considered the healthiest plain in the Punjab. There is an excellent plum grows at this place named Aloocha; the apples also are larger and better than in most other parts of Hindostan. The hills lie about 70 miles distant, and in winter are covered with snow.—*(11th Register, &c.)*

AMRITSIR *(Amrita Saras, the fountain of nectar)*.—The capital of the Seik nation and holy city of their religion, situated in lat. 31° 33′ N. long. 74° 48′ E. 44 miles E. from Lahore. This is an open town, about eight miles in circumference. The streets are narrow, and the houses in general good, being lofty and built of burned bricks, but the apartments are confined. Amritsir is the grand emporium of trade for the shawls and saffron of Cashmere, and a variety of other commodities from the Deccan and eastern part of India. The Raja levies an excise on all the merchandize sold in the town, according to its value. The manufactures of the place are only a few coarse cloths and inferior silks. Owing to its being the resort of many rich merchants and the residence of bankers, Amritsir is considered as a place of opulence. The Seik Raja has built a new fort, which he has named after himself Runjeet Ghur, and he has also brought a narrow canal from the Ravey, a distance of 34 miles.

Amritsir, or the pool of immortality, from which the town takes its name, is a basin of about 135 paces square, built of burned bricks, in the centre of which stands a temple dedicated to Gooroo Govind Singh. In this sacred place is lodged, under a silken canopy, the book of laws writen by that Gooroo. There are from 5 to 600 akalies, or priests, belonging to this temple, who are supported by contributions. When Ahmed Shah Abdalli came to Amritsir, he overthrew their temple twice, and killed cows and threw them into the water in order to defile it. Runjeet Singh has a mint here, at which different coins are struck in the name of their greatest saint Baba Nanak Shah. Good camels, and occasionally horses, are to be purchased here, the first at 50 rupees each. These valuable, patient, and ill used animals are brought down with rock salt from a mine about 80 miles north of Lahore. Strings of 600 are seen on the road, with a large lump resembling a block of unwrought marble slung on each side.

Some Seik authorities ascribe the foundation of Amritsir to Gooroo Ramdass, (who died A. D. 1581), which is not correct, as it was a very ancient town known formerly under the name of Chak. Gooroo Ramdass added much to its population, and built the famous tank, or reservoir, named Amritsir, which in the course

of time became the name of the town, it having been for some time called Ramdasspoor.—*(Sir John Malcolm, 11th Register, &c.)*

NURPOOR.—Situated in lat. 31° 58′ N. long. 75° 22′ E. 44 miles N. N. E. from Amritsir. The town of Nurpoor is situated on the top of a hill, which is ascended by stone steps, and in 1783 had the appearance of opulence and industry. Towards the S. E. the country is open and pleasant, with a winding stream of fine water, the heat being much moderated by the cool breezes from the northern hills, which during a considerable part of the year are covered with snow. The Nurpoor districts are bounded on the north by the Ravey; on the east by the Chambah country; on the west by some small Hindoo districts, lying at the head of the Punjab and the river Beyah; and on the south by Hurreepoor. In 1783, the revenues of Nurpoor were estimated at 4 lacks of rupees; but in 1810 at only two lacks and a half. According to native authorities Nurpoor then contained 7500 houses, and 50 looms occupied in the manufacture of Cashmere shawls. The present chief, named Beer Singh, is what is called a Pathaniya Rajpoot.

CALANORE.—At this town the Emperor Acber was first proclaimed, in 1556, on the death of his father Humayoon. It stands in lat. 32° 1′ N. long. 74° 53′ E. 30 miles N. from Amritsir.

DEBALPOOR *(Devalayapura)*.—This town is situated in the Doab formed by the aggregated waters of the Sutuleje and Beyah on the one side, with those of the Ravey on the other, and in 1582 was the capital of a district described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Circar Debalpoor, containing 29 mahals; revenue 129,334,153 dams; seyurghal 2,079,170 dams. This circar furnishes 5210 cavalry, and 53,300 infantry." The town of Debalpoor stands about 75 miles S. S. W. from the city of Lahore, in lat. 30° 39′ N. long. 73° 37′ E. and with the adjacent country is subject to the Seik chief Raja Runjeet Singh.

PAUKPUTTUN *(the pure city)*.—A town in the Lahore province, 100 miles S. S. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 30° 21′ N. long. 73° 16′ E. Near to Paukputtun is the tomb of Sheik Furreed, which was visited by Timour.

MULKAN.—A town in the Lahore province, 95 miles S. S. W. from the city of Lahore. Lat. 30° 27′ N. long. 73° 13′ E.

DOABEH JALLINDER *(Jalindra)*.—This Doab is concluded between the Sutuleje and Beyah rivers, and the mountainous district of Cahlore, or Ghahlore. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Doabeh Beit Jallinder, containing 60 mahals; measurement 3,279,302 begahs, revenue 124,365,212 dams; seyurghal 2,651,788 dams. This circar furnishes 4155 cavalry, and 79,536 infantry."

This natural subdivision of the Lahore province, although of small dimensions,

is from the peculiarity of its geographical position of considerable importance, as it is by this route that the imperial province of Delhi is to be most conveniently penetrated, the extent of fertile country being here circumscribed by the hills on the east and the desert on the west. It is also the most fruitful portion of the Seik territory, and is not excelled in climate and strength of vegetation by any province in India. The soil is light but very productive, and the country, which is open and level, abounds with every kind of grain. The want of water, which is so much felt in the more westerly regions, is here unknown, as it is found everywhere in abundance, within two or three feet of the surface. The principal towns are Jallinder, Rahoon, and Bhutty.

This territory is principally occupied by the Malawa Singh Seiks, who are called the Doabeh Singhs, or Singhs who dwell between two rivers. With these chiefs we are but little acquainted. In 1808, Tarah Singh was one of the most considerable, but he seems to have disappeared so early as 1812, when Boodh Singh of Jallinder, Futteh Singh of Allowalia, and Jodh Singh of Rumguria, were the principal leaders. In that year Runjeet Singh of Lahore, taking advantage of their internal discord, attacked the possessions of the first and captured his two principal fortresses Jallinder and Bhutty. It is worthy of remark as illustrating the political state of the Seik community, that the instruments employed in the subjugation of this territory were the two chiefs last named, whose forces formed the largest body of cavalry in Runjeet's army, yet a defensive alliance was believed to exist between these three chiefs to resist conjointly the aggressions of Runjeet Singh. Under these circumstances two of them followed his standard to effect the destruction of the third, swayed by the delusion of protracting for a short period their own downfall. On the other hand, the pride of Boodh Singh, the first mentioned, induced him to abandon without a struggle a tract of country yielding a revenue of 3 lacks of rupees per annum, rather than submit to a personal attendance on Runjeet Singh.—*(Sir David Ochterlony, Sir John Malcolm, Abul Fazel, &c. &c.)*

JALLINDER.—This was formerly a residence of the Afghans, and is still inhabited by some of their descendants subject to the Seiks. Lat. 31° 18′ N. long. 75° 40′ E. 52 miles S. E. from Amritsir. The modern houses are mostly constructed from the ruinous materials of the houses formerly inhabited by the Afghans. In 1808, Jallinder was held in jaghire by two brothers at war with each other, in consequence of which they kept up a constant discharge of fire arms during the day, and at night set fire to each others corn fields. It was ultimately subdued by Runjeet, whose practice was to restore the towns and their dependencies to their former proprietors, where he met with no opposition, to be held by them as jaghires.—*(11th Register, &c.)*

SULTANPOOR.—A town in the Lahore province, 27 miles S. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 13′ N. long. 74° 56′ E.

BHIROWAL.—This place stands on the north side of the Beyah river, which, when at its highest, is 740 yards across. Lat. 31° 20′ N. long. 75° 5′ E. 24 miles S. E. from Amritsir.

DUTTAR.—A town in the province of Lahore, 60 miles E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 33′ N. long. 75° 49′ E.

RAYGHAUT.—A town in the Lahore province, 38 miles E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 34′ N. long. 75° 27′ E.

TULWUNDY.—The birth place of Nanock Shah, the high priest and legislator of the Seiks. Lat. 31° 15′ N. long. 75° E. 20 miles S. S. E. from Amritsir.

RAHOON *(or Rahn).*—This place is but a few miles distant from the Sutuleje, which in the month of April has here the appearance of a canal running in two channels, the first fordable, and in breadth about 100 yards; the second is 350 yards across, the water deep, but not rapid. When the floods are at the highest the stream here is said to expand to the great width of one mile and a half. From Rahoon, baftas and piece goods are carried to the fair at Hurdwar. The town stands in lat. 31° 1′ N. long. 76° E. about 20 miles N. N. E. from Ludeeanna.—*(11th Register, Raper, &c.)*

MACOWAL *(Makhaval).*—This was the first town acquired by the Seiks, during the government of their priest militant Gooroo Govind. Lat. 31° 5′ N. long. 76° 21′ E. 40 miles N. E. from Ludeeanna. It is also named Anundpoor Macowal.

KISHTEWAR *(Cashthavar, abounding in wood).*—A town and district in the north eastern extremity of the Lahore province, bounded on three sides by the Cashmere and Himalaya mountains. The town is situated in lat. 33° 58′ N. long. 76° 9′ E. about 85 miles E. S. E. from the city of Cashmere. Respecting this remote quarter very little is known, except that it is very hilly and woody, as its name imports, but thinly peopled, and liable to extreme cold during the depth of winter. It is intersected by the Chinaub river, which has its source in the north east corner, and is in some places 70 yards broad, with a rapid current. At the village of Nausman it is crossed in a basket slung to a rope, which is pulled along with its goods and passengers, and then back again. In 1783, this was one of the few independent Hindoo districts remaining in India, yet the chief was a Mahommedan. It probably still remains independent, its rugged surface and harsh climate presenting few attractions to invaders.—*(Forster, &c. &c.)*

BADARWALL.—A town in the Kohistan of Lahore, 40 miles S. S. E. from the city of Cashmere. Lat. 33° 36′ N. long. 75° 37′ E.

PALKAH *(Palica)*.—A town in the Kohistan, or highlands of Lahore, 110 miles S. E. from Cashmere. Lat. 33° 10′ N. long. 75° 55′ E.

CHANDAHNEE *(or Chinnanee)*.—In 1783, the district attached to this town commenced in the vicinity of Nagrolah, and then yielded a revenue of about a lack of rupees to its petty prince, who was a dependent on the chief of Jamboe, who received his quota of troops in lieu of tribute. The town of Chandahnee is situated in lat. 33° 21′ N. long. 76° 6′ E. about 76 miles S. by E. from Cashmere city, and in 1783, was a neat and populous town. It stands on the brow of a hill, at the foot of which on the eastern side runs a rapid stream passing to the left. This channel is crossed on two stout fir beams, one of which reaches from the shore to an insulated rock in the centre of the river, to which it is fastened by wooden stakes, while the other extends from the rock to the opposite bank. At Dammomunjee in this district is an uncommonly beautiful and fertile valley.—*(Forster, &c. &c.)*

JAMBOE *(Jambhu)*.—A town and petty principality in the Kohistan of the Lahore province, the first situated in lat. 32° 56′ N. long. 74° 38′ E. 97 miles N. from Amritsir. The limits of the Jamboe Raja's territories fluctuate greatly according to circumstances, and he is generally tributary to the Seiks. In 1783, the revenues of this principality were estimated at five lacks of rupees, besides the produce of Buddoo and Chandahnee, or Chinnance. The face of the country is hilly and woody, and the greater portion thinly inhabited, owing to the incursions of the Seiks and predatory habits of the natives. The road to the city of Jamboe in a south-west direction, lies through a defile of sand for many miles, the sides of which consist of lofty rocks nearly perpendicular.

The town of Jamboe stands on the side of a hill, and contains two distinct divisions, which are termed the upper and the lower towns. The bottom of the hill is washed by the Ravey, here about 40 or 50 yards broad, and fordable at most seasons of the year, with many water mills on its banks for grinding corn. In 1783, Jamboe was a town of considerable commercial resort, as it was then an entrepot between Cashmere and Hindostan; but so many changes have since that date taken place, that the trade has also probably undergone some mutation. The shawls then exported from Cashmere by this route were packed in bales of a certain weight and ascertained value, and were not subsequently opened until they reached their destined market. These bales were usually carried by men, natives of Cashmere, the precipitous nature of the country precluding the employment of cattle for that purpose. Jamboe is noted for producing a white mulberry of an exquisite flavour.

How this little territory acquired a name (Jambhu) which in the ancient Hindoo mythological poems is used to designate all India (Jambhu Dwipa), we are not

informed. In some of these compositions allusion is made to a temple of the sun in Metrabana on the river Chandrabhaga (the Chinaub, or Acesines), alleged by modern pundits to have been situated some where near the modern town of Jamboe. The ancient Jambhu Dwipa is described as having been surrounded by a salt sea, and it is possible that the ocean may at one time have reached to the base of these mountains, forming the high table lands into islands.—*(Forster, F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

BEHDUROO.—A small district in the Kohistan of Lahore, situated to the north of Chamba, but respecting which nothing further is known.

CHAMBA *(Champa)*.—North of Noorpoor is an extensive territory, situated on both sides of the Ravey, and called Chamba. According to native authority a long ridge of mountains, covered with perpetual snow, separates from the great Himalaya chain near the source of the Beyah, and extending to the south-east, passes near Kangra, then crosses the Ravey, and finally bends to the north-west towards Cashmere. This ridge, called Pariyat, in general forms the south-east boundary of Chamba, but on its south side, the chief possesses a territory called Rilloo. The portions of Chamba situated to the south of the Pariyat mountains are very cold, and it is said have several communications with Tibet. The exact situation of the town of Chamba has not yet been ascertained, but the latest maps place it in lat. 32° 17′ N. long. 76° 5′ E. 100 miles N. E. from Amritsir.—*(F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

KANGRA *(Khankara)*.—An ancient town and district situated in the Kohistan of the Lahore province, and variously named Kote Caungrah and Nagorcote. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:

"Nagorcote is a city placed on a high mountain with a fort named Kangrah. In the vicinity of this city upon a lofty mountain is a place called Maha Maya, which they (the Hindoos) consider as one of the works of the divinity, and come in pilgrimages to it from great distances, thereby obtaining the accomplishment of their wishes. It is most wonderful, that in order to effect this, they cut out their tongues, which grow again in the course of two or three days, and sometimes in a few hours. Physicians believe that when the tongue is cut out it will grow again; but nothing except a miracle can effect it so speedily as is here mentioned."

The fortress of Kangra (Cote Kangrah) is situated in lat. 32° 15′ N. long. 76° 8′ E. 90 miles N. E. from Amritsir. The town of Kangra is open, and before the attack of Ammer Singh, contained about 2,000 houses. In the neighbourhood was the famous Hindoo temple above described, which was of great celebrity when the Mahommedans first invaded Hindostan, and which still retains its reputation for sanctity. By the Hindoos it is named Juwala Muchi.

The Emperor Acber accomplished the reduction of this fort after a siege of a whole year, which he commanded in person, and he subsequently bestowed it on an officer who had distinguished himself. In 1783, the revenue of the territory attached to this town was estimated at seven lacks of rupees per annum. Although most parts of the Kangra country are high, the ascents from the plains below are not precipitous, and the summits of the hills are level, so that a large proportion is fit for cultivation, and occupied. There is plenty of sugar cane, which requires a warm climate, and rice is so abundant as to be exported to Lahore; but the poor live mostly on maize. None of the original unconverted tribes remain; the Jaut is said to be the most numerous.

After the conquest of Serinagur in 1803 by the Nepaulese, their army proceeded in the direction of Lahore, but were stopped in their progress by this fortress, which then belonged to Raja Sunsar Chund. It is situated on a steep mountain, about 30 miles to the west of the Beyah river, is well supplied with water, and contains ground sufficient to yield a subsistence to the garrison consisting of 3 or 4,000 men. Finding it impossible to effect its reduction by a coup-de-main, the siege was converted into a blockade, which continued with more or less strictness until 1810, when the Gorkhas, under Ammer Sigh Thappa, were compelled to raise the siege by the approach of an army under Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore. For this assistance the Kangra Raja paid dearly, as he was obliged to cede both the town and fortress of Kangra and the fort of Kotta to Runjeet, with a territory to the value of 50,000 rupees per annum. At that time Gholaum Mahommed the Rohillah, who fought against Sir Robert Abercrombie in 1794, served in the pay of the Kangra Raja.

In 1810, the Raja of Kangra, Sunsar Chund, forwarded an address to Lord Minto, purporting that in the event of the Punjab country coming under the British dominion, he might be guaranteed in the territory then held by him, as well as of the places which had been wrested from him by the Nepaulese. He was informed in reply that the British government entertained no design of invading the Punjab, or of subjugating the Seiks, being always disposed to maintain the relations of amity with all the surrounding chiefs and states, unless their hostile conduct compelled an appeal to arms, and that under these circumstances his Lordship was precluded from a compliance with the Raja's application.—*(Forster, F. Buchanan, Sir D. Ochterlony, &c. &c. &c.)*

NADONE *(Nadaun)*.—One of the principal towns of the Kangra country, of which it is at present the capital, and standing on the south side of the Beyah river, 87 miles E. N. E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 55′ N. long. 76° 11′ E. The district attached to Nadone is a mountainous tract of country, which borders on the Punjab, and is at present tributary to Raja Runjeet Singh of Lahore. In 1806 it was overrun by the Gorkhas of Nepaul, who then obtained possession of

the town, from which they were subsequently expelled. The town is said to contain only 500 houses.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Forster, &c. &c.)*

SUJANPOOR.—A considerable town containing about 2,000 houses, situated on the east bank of the Beyah river, 30 miles E. of Kangra. According to native authorities it is surrounded by lines 12 coss in circumference.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

JWALAMUKHI.—This was a considerable town, where many Gossain merchants had settled; but during the disturbances it was plundered by the Rajá of Gular, who had joined Ammer Singh. It stands about 30 miles S. E. of Kangra. At this place, where, in the dispersion of her members, the tongue of the goddess Parvati fell, there is a small temple about 20 feet square. According to native accounts it is paved with large stones, and from a hole in one corner there issues a constant flame, which when at the lowest rises about 18 inches; but in the rainy season it is said to issue with great violence, flame bursting from several parts of the floor, and also from places beyond the limits of the temple.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

HURREEPOOR *(Haripur)*.—This is the principal town belonging to a petty chief, named the Raja of Gular; and in 1810 was reckoned to contain from 1,000 to 1,500 houses. Lat. 31° 57′ N. long. 75° 55′ E. 73 miles N. E. from Amritsir. The Raja of Gular is tributary to Runjeet Singh of Lahore.

SEEBAH *(Siva)*.—The capital of a small mountainous district, situated about 65 miles E. N. E. from Amritsir. Lat. 31° 48′ N. long. 75° 52′ E. It stands on the brink of a rivulet, and is fortified.

COOLOO *(Culu)*.—According to native authorities the country of Cooloo lies due north of Kangra, and is separated from Chamba by the Pariyat mountains. It is watered in the centre by the Beyah, but the territory extends to the Sutuleje. It is said to be cold, mountainous, and barren, but furnishing much sheep pasture, and there is said to be a good communication from hence to Tibet.

In 1814, the Raja Beckram Sen of Cooloo availed himself of the troubled state of the country to the east of the Sutuleje, to obtain possession of some strong holds, from which, after the expulsion of the Gorkhas by the British arms, it became necessary to dislodge him. A correspondence in consequence took place between him and the British commissioner, Lieut. Ross, which, after considerable demur, and the necessity of menacing him with the employment of force, terminated in his evacuating the posts east of that river, except one or two, his right to which was admitted. Some barren peaks, which the Cooloo Raja wished to retain, were considered by him of much more importance, than their appearance indicated, from their being situated within the protection of the British government, which is precluded by treaty from crossing the Sutuleje. These spots he considered as so many asylums for himself and subjects, and

depositaries for their effects, As soon as this question was settled, and no risk existed of a mark of favour being misconstrued, the British commissioner was authorized to make him a pecuniary donation of 5000 rupees, as a compensation for expenses incurred during the campaign against the Gorkhas, in which he had co-operated, and he was at the same time presented with some articles of European manufacture.

About twenty-five years ago, Cooloo was the principal channel through which the shawl trade was carried on with Upper Hindostan, and the raw material from Lahdack still passes through Cooloo, from whence by a skilful arrangement it might be made to pass into the British dominions, in place of the more expensive and circuitous route of Amritsir.—*(Public MS. Documents, Lieut. Ross, F. Buchanan, &c. &c.)*

MUNDI.—South from Cooloo is Mundi, said to be a smaller country, but of superior fertility, and possessing one mine of iron, and another of culinary salt, probably rock salt and full of impurities. The two mines are said to yield the Raja 150,000 rupees per annum, and the land revenue about the same amount. The chief's name in 1810 was Iswari Sen, and his capital Mundi was then reckoned to contain 1,000 houses. Camaulghur situated on a great hill towards the southern frontier is reckoned a strong place.—*(F. Buchanan, &c.)*

SUKAID *(Sukheta.)*—This is a narrow territory extending along the north bank of the Sutuleje river, which here by a great circumflexion flows from the south-east to the north-west. In 1810, the country was said to produce its chief, Raja Perkaush Sen, a lack of rupees per annum, but it possessed no mines. Sukaid the capital contains about 500 houses.—*(F. Buchanan, Lieut. Ross, &c.)*

THE PROVINCE OF CASHMERE.

(CASMIRA.)

THE valley of Cashmere is comprehended between the 34th and 35th degrees of north latitude, and surrounded by lofty mountains which separate it from Little Tibet on the north; from Lahdack on the east; from Lahore on the south; and Puckely on the west. On the north-west a branch of the Speen, or white Caffres, approaches Cashmere. The valley is of an elliptic form and widens gradually to Islamabad, where the breadth is about 40 miles, which is continued with little variation to the town of Sampre, whence the mountains by a regular inclination to the westward come to a point and separate Cashmere from Muzifferabad. Including the surrounding mountains, Cashmere may be estimated at 110 miles in length by 60 the extreme breadth; the figure nearly an oval. The limits of Cashmere towards the west, adjoining Muzifferabad, are terminated by a low thick wood, the edge of which is skirted by a rivulet; and on the other side rises a chain of lofty mountains stretching to the north and south. There are seven passes into the province, four from the south, one from the west, and the remaining two from the north. That of Bember is the best, but that of Muzifferabad is most frequented. By Abul Fazel in 1582, this province is described as follows:—

"The soubah of Cashmere is situated partly in the third and partly in the fourth climate. It is composed of Cashmere, Bhember, Sewad, Bijore, Candahar, and Zabulistan (Cabul). Formerly it had Ghizni, but now it has Cabul for its capital. The length from Kimberdine to Kishengunge is 120 coss, and the breadth from 10 to 25 coss. On the east lies Peeristaun and the river Chinaub; on the south-east Bankul, and the mountains of Jummoo; on the north-east Great Tibet; on the west Puckoli and Kishengunge; on the south-west the territory of Gucker; and on the north-west Little Tibet. It is encompassed on all sides with lofty mountains. There are 26 roads into Hindostan, but those of Bember and Puckoli are the best, being passable for horses."

The whole of Cashmere represents a garden in perpetual spring, and the fortifications with which nature has furnished it are of an astonishing height. The water is remarkably good, and the cataracts are magnificent. It rains and snows

here at the same season, as in Tartary and Persia; and during the periodical rains in Hindostan, light showers also fall here. The land is partly marshy, the rest well watered by streams and lakes. Violets, roses, narcissuses, and innumerable other flowers grow wild. Earthquakes are very frequent, on which account the houses are built of wood. The inhabitants subsist chiefly on rice, fresh and dried fish, and vegetables, and they drink wine. Their horses are small, but hardy; they breed neither camels nor elephants, both being unsuited to the nature of the country. In their cities and towns are neither snakes, scorpions, nor other venemous reptiles; but the country in general abounds with flies, gnats, bugs, and lice. Most of the trade of the country is carried on by water, but great burdens are also transported on men's shoulders.

"The Cashmerians have a language of their own, but their books are written in the Sanscrit tongue, although the character be sometimes Cashmerian. They write chiefly upon tooz, which is the bark of a tree. The Mahommedans are partly Sunnies, and others are of the sects of Ali and Noorbukshay. There are many delightful singers, but they want variety. The Hindoos regard the whole of Cashmere as holy land: 45 places are dedicated to Siva; 64 to Vishnu; 3 to Brahma; and 22 to Durga, the wife of Siva. In 700 places, figures of snakes are carved, which they also worship.

"Although formerly government was said to take only a third of the produce of the soil, yet in fact the husbandman was not left in the enjoyment of nearly one third. His Majesty (Acber) has now commanded that the crops shall be equally divided between the husbandman and the state. There are but few troops in Cashmere, the native standing army being only 4892 cavalry, and 92,400 infantry.

"The ancients divided Cashmere into two parts only, calling the eastern division Meraje, and the western, Kamraje. In the history of Cashmere, it is said, that in the early ages of the world, all Cashmere, except the mountains, was covered with water, and was then named Suttysir. Sutty is one of the names of Siva's wife, and sir signifies a reservoir. In the year of the Hijera 948 (A. D. 1541), Mirza Hyder was sent against Cashmere by the Emperor Humayoon, and, by the help of some of the natives, conquered the whole of that country, and part of Great Tibet." Such is the description of this interesting province as it existed 238 years ago, since which period, it has probably, in every respect, greatly retrograded.

The lower range of mountains which surround Cashmere are of a moderate height, and covered with trees and verdure, affording excellent pasturage for all sorts of cattle and wild graminivorous animals, and containing none of the larger and more ferocious carnivorous animals, such as lions and tigers. Beyond this

range are mountains of a more stupendous elevation, whose snow clad tops, soaring above the clouds and fogs, appear perpetually bright and luminous. By ascending from the plains up the mountains, any degree of cold may be attained. From these mountains flow innumerable cascades and rivulets, which the inhabitants conduct through their rice fields for the purposes of irrigation, and in their course form small lakes and canals, the junction of which afterwards forms streams navigable for boats of considerable magnitude, even within the limits of Cashmere, and increasing as they flow southward from the Jhylum or Hydaspes, one of the largest rivers by which Hindostan is fertilized. Among these mountains are many romantic vallies, the inhabitants of which have scarcely any communication with those of the plains, and on account of their poverty and inaccessible residence have never been subjugated by any of the conquerors who have devastated Cashmere. The religion of these primitive tribes is unknown, but it is probably some modification of the Brahminical, or Buddhist tenets.

The valley of Cashmere is celebrated throughout Asia for the romantic beauty of its situation, the fertility of its soil, and the temperature of its atmosphere. It is generally of a level surface, and being copiously watered, yields abundant crops of rice, which is the common food of the inhabitants. The facility of procuring water insures the crop against the injuries of a drought, and the mildness of the climate against the scorching effect of the sun. Near the base of the surrounding hills where the land is higher, wheat, barley, and various other grains are cultivated. In this province are found most of the plants, fruits, flowers, and forest trees, common to Europe, particularly the apple, pear, plum, apricot, and nut trees, and abundance of grapes; and in the gardens are many kitchen herbs peculiar to cold countries. A superior sort of saffron is also cultivated in Cashmere, and iron of an excellent quality is found in the mountains. The sengerah, or water nut, which grows in the lakes, forms a considerable portion of the food of the lower classes. Many lakes are spread over the country, and there is a tradition, which appearances tend to confirm, that the Cashmere valley was once the bed of a large lake which at last opened itself a passage into Hindostan by the river Jhylum. Besides this river which intersects the whole province from east to west, there are numberless mountain streams supplied by the rains, which fall with great violence from June to October, forming many cascades and small cataracts which are precipitated into the valley, where the periodical rains are described as only descending in gentle showers.

The wealth and fame of Cashmere have greatly arisen from the manufacture of shawls, the wool of which is not the growth of the country, but brought from the high table land of Tibet, where alone the shawl goat producing it will thrive.

Neither the Delhi emperors, who made various attempts to introduce this species of goat into the upper provinces of India, nor the sovereigns of Persia, whose dominions were still more favourably situated, have ever been able to succeed in procuring wool of an equally fine quality with that of Tibet. The Persian shawl, from the wool of Kerman, comes nearer the Cashmere shawl than the English. This raw material of the Cashmere shawl is rather a down than a wool, being protected by the exterior coarse hair. It is originally of a dark grey colour, and is bleached in Cashmere by the help of a preparation of rice flower. That from Rodauk is reckoned the best, and the price in Cashmere is from ten to twenty rupees per turruk; a weight supposed equal to about 12 pounds, and the whitest is most in demand. It is difficult to fix with any accuracy the number of shawls manufactured in the year. The number of looms (each occupying 3 men) employed, is said to be 16,000. Supposing, on an average, five shawls of all descriptions made at each shop or loom annually, the total would amount to 80,000, which is probably not very remote from the truth. The following is the process:—

The shop consists of a kind of frame work, at which the persons employed sit on a bench, in number from 2 to 4. On plain shawls only two persons are employed; and a long, narrow, but heavy shuttle is used: those of which the pattern is variegated are worked with wooden needles, there being a separate needle for the threads of each colour; for the latter no shuttle is required. The operation of their manufacture is slow proportioned to the quantity of work in the patterns.

The oostaud, or head workman, superintends, while his journeymen are employed near him under his directions. If they have any new pattern in hand, or one with which they are not familiar, he describes to them the figure, colour, and threads that are to be used, while he keeps before him the pattern on which they happen to be employed, drawn on paper. During the operation, the rough side of the shawl is uppermost on the frame, notwithstanding which, the head workman never mistakes the regularity of the most finished patterns. A shop may be occupied with one shawl above a year, provided it be a remarkably fine one, while other shops make six or eight in the course of that time. Of the best and most noted sorts, not so much as a quarter of an inch is completed in one day by three persons, which is the usual number employed. Shawls containing much work are made in separate pieces at different shops, and it may be observed, that it very rarely happens when the pieces are completed, that they correspond in size.

The wages of the head workmen (the employer furnishing the materials) are from 6 to 8 pice per day; of the common workman from 1 to 4 pice, which cur-

rency in Cashmere may be valued at three halfpence each. When a merchant enters into the trade he frequently engages several shops, which he collects in a spot under his own eye, or he supplies the head workmen with thread, which has been spun by women and previously coloured; and they carry on the manufacture at their own homes, having beforehand received instructions from the merchant respecting the quality of the goods he may require, their colours, patterns, &c. After the goods are finished the merchant carries them to the custom house, where each shawl is stamped and pays a certain duty, the amount of which is settled according to the value and quality of the piece. The officer of government generally fixes the value beyond what the goods are in reality worth, and the duty levied in this estimate is one fifth. Most shawls are exported from Cashmere unwashed, and fresh from the loom. Amritsir is the great shawl mart, and there they are better washed and packed than in Cashmere; but of those sent to the westward many are worn unwashed.

The Cashmerians also fabricate the best writing paper of the east, which was formerly an article of extensive traffic, as were its lackered ware, cutlery and sugar; but trade of all sorts is now in a very languid state. A wine resembling Madeira is manufactured in this province, and a spirituous liquor is also distilled from the grape. Amritsir in Lahore, the Seik capital, is at present the grand emporium for the shawls and saffron of Cashmere. About twelve years ago the Russian merchants penetrated from the north into Cashmere with their goods, by the route of Yarkund. The boats of Cashmere are long and narrow and are moved with paddles. The country being intersected with numerous streams navigable for small vessels, might greatly benefit under a better government by this commodious internal conveyance. As there are no regular caravanserais, commercial strangers are generally lodged by their brokers.

In the time of Aurengzebe the revenue collected (probably the clear revenue) in Cashmere was 3½ lacks of rupees per annum; in 1783, the Afghan governor on the part of the Cabul sovereign extorted above 20 lacks. In 1809, the gross revenue was said to be 4,626,300 rupees, or about half a million sterling. The sum receivable by the Cabul King depends on his contract with the governor, and the governor's inclination to perform its conditions. When at the highest it amounted to 2,200,000 rupees, from which a deduction of 700,000 was allowed for the pay of the troops, so that only 1,500,000 lacks reached the royal treasury. Above six lacks were then assigned to the neighbouring Rajas, to Afghan chiefs and to moullahs, dervises, and Hindoo fakeers. The rest is charged to the real or alleged expenses of collection, and to the support of the establishment.

The governor of Cashmere, while in subordination to the Sovereign of Cabul, had constantly at his disposal a force of 5400 horse and 3200 foot; but the Afghan

soldiers serving in Cashmere appear greatly to degenerate, becoming insolent and luxurious, yet the more western Afghans, from attachment to their native country, seldom remain long in the province.

Cashmere being so remote from the capital of the Afghan government, and the governors delegated being intrusted with absolute authority, they are often tempted to rebel, but notwithstanding the seclusion and natural strength of the country, they (with the exception of the last) have been in general easily subdued. The native Cashmerians are unfit for soldiers, and the Afghans and Kezzelbaches soon become enervated and little disposed to resist their legitimate sovereign. The royal army on the other hand is usually composed of poor and adventurous soldiers, who look forward eagerly to the fancied pleasures of Cashmere, and know the sufferings they must endure if compelled to retreat.

The mountains around Cashmere are in many parts inhabited by tribes in a sort of dependence on the Afghan government. Their chiefs hold lands within the valley, which have probably been given them to strengthen the fervour of their loyalty, and ensure their obedience. They furnish some troops to the governor, and when he is strong enough to enforce it they pay him some revenue. On the north of this province is a chief whom the Cashmerians decorate with the title of Raja of Little Tibet, of which however he probably only possesses a small portion. The lofty mountains between Cashmere and Lahdack have been but little explored, but caravans of merchants pass regularly between these two places, bringing shawl wool from the latter, and offering to an adventurous European well versed in the country languages, an obvious opportunity of tracing the course of the Indus further than has yet been attempted. In fact the terra incognita of this river now lies between Lahdack and Gortope, a direct distance of about 310 miles, but much more following the windings of the stream.

The natives of Cashmere are a stout well formed people, and their complexions what in France or Spain would be termed brunette. They are naturally a gay and lively people, eager in the pursuit of wealth, accounted much more acute and intriguing than the natives of Hindostan generally, and proverbially liars. They are also much addicted to the cultivation of literature and poetry, and the common people are remarkably ingenious in cabinet work of all descriptions. The language of Cashmere is of Sancrit origin, modified by time and the introduction of some foreign phrases. In a specimen of the Lord's prayer in this language examined by the missionaries, 25 words out of 32 were found to be radically the same with those occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens, some of them however considerably altered. Their songs are composed in Persic, which they consider more harmonious. In appearance the natives of the province have not the slightest resemblance to their Tartarian neighbours,

who are an ugly race; on the contrary the Cashmerian females have been long celebrated for their beauty and fair complexions, and on that account much sought after for wives by the Mogul nobility of Delhi, that the breed might not degenerate. Although extremely fertile and productive, the country is not thickly populated on account of the deplorable government, or rather anarchy, to which it has been so long subjected. The whole number are probably under 600,000, nor could any thing approaching this number be assigned but for the great population said to be contained in the capital (from 150,000 to 200,000). All Cashmere is reckoned holy land by the Hindoos, and abounds with miraculous fountains; but although evidently sprung from a Hindoo stock, at present by far the greater portion of the population are Mahommedans.

Abul Fazel enumerates a succession of 150 Hindoo kings, who governed Cashmere prior to the year 742 of the Hijera, when it was celebrated for the reputed learning of its Brahmins, and the magnificence of its temples. The period of its subjugation is uncertain, but it was attacked and ravaged by Mahmood of Ghizni so early as A. D. 1012. It was afterwards governed in a long succession by a race of Tartar princes of the Chug or Chagatay tribe, until 1586, when it was subdued by Acber, and continued subject to the Moguls of Delhi until the time of Ahmed Shah, the Cabul sovereign, and it has ever since constituted a portion of the Afghan dominions. On the first occupation of their country by this people, the natives were rebellious, but they have since been completely quelled by the strong measures prosecuted by the invaders. At present no Cashmerians, except soldiers in the service of the state, are allowed to carry arms within the city. The same prohibition does not extend to the country, where, however, in the low lands, the power of the native chiefs has been completely annihilated by the strong force of Afghans and Kezzelbaches permanently retained in the valley, and, owing to the small number of passes, the government is enabled to prevent any person either entering or quitting the country without its permission.

Owing to its remote situation, it became necessary for the Sovereign of Cabul to invest his representative in Cashmere with all the powers of a king, to be exercised without appeal or reference. The consequence was, that when the dynasty of Ahmed Shah Abdalli began to totter on their throne, the governor of Cashmere was one of the first to claim the title as he had performed the functions of an independent prince. Accordingly in 1809, Mahommed Azim Khan, the soubahdar of the province, threw off the yoke, and set the power of his legitimate sovereign at defiance. In April, 1816, a powerful army marched from Cabul, under the command of Akram Khan, the Vizier, with the view of recovering the province for the Durranny monarchy; but owing to the treachery of the hill chief of Muzifferabad, it was defeated and compelled to retreat with infinite loss and

disgrace. In November, 1816, Mahommed Azim still possessed, independent of Cabul, the government of Cashmere, and he has since rendered abortive an attempt to effect its conquest by Raja Runjeet Singh, the Seik chief of Lahore. His administration has been described as the extreme of tyranny; the inhabitants as harrassed by extortions and watched by a numerous band of spies. This oppression tends to augment the depravity of their characters and natural proneness to falsehood and cunning, but their habitual gaiety is said to prevent its affecting, in any many material degree, their happiness or inclination to sensual pleasures. It is also possible that their evil propensities have been greatly exaggerated by narrators not well qualified to report on them, or copying assertions on the subject without examination.—*(Elphinstone, Forster, Abul Fazel, Bernier, Rennell, Morecroft, &c. &c. &c.)*

Cashmere *(or Serinagur)*.—The capital of the Cashmere province, situated in lat. 33° 23′ N. long. 74° 47′ E. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "Serinagur, the capital of Cashmere, is 4 fursungs in length. The last mentioned one is dry during a part of the year, and the Mar is sometimes so shallow that boats cannot pass through it. This city has for ages been in a flourishing state, and here are manufactured shawls and other fine woollen stuffs. On the east side of the city is a high hill, called the mountain of Soliman, and adjoining are two large lakes, which are always full."

The modern town of Cashmere was formerly known by the name of Serinagur, but now by that of the province. It extends about 3 miles on each side of the river Jhylum or Hydaspes, over which are four or five wooden bridges, and it occupies in some part of its breadth, which is unequal, about two miles. The houses, many of them 2 or 3 stories high, are slightly built of brick and mortar, with a large intermixture of timber. On the wooden roof is laid a covering of earth, which contributes to the warmth of the house during the winter, and in summer is planted with flowers. The streets are narrow and choked with the filth of the inhabitants, who are unclean to a proverb, and there are no buildings worthy of remark. The soubahdar, or governor of Cashmere, resides in a fortress called Shereghur, occupying the south-east quarter of the city. The benefits which this city enjoys in a mild salubrious air, and a river flowing through its centre, are essentially alloyed by its confined construction, and the extreme filthiness of the people. There are covered floating baths ranged along the sides of the river.

The lake of Cashmere, named in the provincial language the Dall, has long been celebrated for its beauties. It extends from the north-east quarter of the city in an oval circumference of five or six miles, and joins the Jhylum by a narrow channel near the suburbs.—The northern view of the lake is terminated at the distance of 12 miles, by a detached range of mountains, which slope from

the centre to each angle; and from the base, a spacious plain, preserved in constant verdure by numerous streams, extends with an easy declivity to the surface of the water. In the centre of the plain as it approaches the lake, one of the Delhi Emperors, probably Shah Jehan, constructed a spacious garden named Shalimar. The numerous small islands in the lake have the effect of ornamenting the scenery.

Bernier, who visited this country in 1663, when travelling in the suit of the Emperor Aurengzebe, gives a most interesting and romantic description of this city; but since the dismemberment of Cashmere from the Mogul empire by the Afghans, it has suffered many ravages and extortions. But notwithstanding these causes of decline and the vicissitude of its government, it was in 1809 estimated to contain from 150,000 to 200,000 inhabitants, and reckoned the largest and most populous city in the Afghan dominions.—*(Forster, Rennell, Abul Fazel, Bernier, Elphinstone, &c.)*

OULLER LAKE.—This lake is adjacent to the city of Cashmere, and, in 1582, was described by Abul Fazel as 28 coss in circumference, having in its centre a palace built by Sultan Zein ul Abdeen. Its modern dimensions are much less, but it has never undergone the accurate survey or inspection of an European.

VEHY.—This small district is described by Abul Fazel as producing much saffron, and is intersected by the Jhylum river.

PAMPER.—A town in the province of Cashmere, situated on the north side of the Jhylum river, 12 miles east from the city of Cashmere. Lat. 34° 20′ N. long. 74° 55′ E.

PHAK.—This district is bounded on the west by the Jhylum, and is described by Abul Fazel as abounding with odoriferous plants. Adjoining to it is the lake of Cashmere, by him named Dall, one side of which was close to the town of Phak in 1582. On this lake were artificial islands, made for the purposes of cultivation, portions of which were frequently cut off by robbers, who absconded with them to a different part of the lake.—*(Abul Fazel, &c.)*

DUROO.—A small town in the province of Cashmere, 35 miles S. E. from the city of Cashmere. Lat. 34° 7′ N. long. 75° 16′ E.

VIRNAUGH.—A village in the province of Cashmere, 37 miles S. E. from the city of Cashmere. The country in this neighbourhood produces apples, pears, peaches, apricots, cherries, and mulberries, besides the red and white rose, and an infinite variety of flowering shrubs. Except the mulberry, few of the fruits or vegetables of Hindostan are produced here. Near to Virnaugh a torrent of water bursts from a mountain, and soon forms a considerable stream. A bason of a square form has been constructed, it is said by the Emperor Jehangire, to receive the water where it reaches the plain.—*(Forster, &c. &c.)*

BANAUL.—A small district or valley in the province of Cashmere, situated among the southern hills. At the distance of five miles to the south-east of the village of Banaul, begins a boundary of a division of the Cashmere territory, lying beyond the great circle of mountains. The governors of Cashmere permit the fertile valley of Banaul, which is ten miles in length, to remain uncultivated, that it may not afford shelter or provisions to the bordering Hindoo states, who in former periods have through this tract approached the interior passes of Cashmere. The Banaul district is mountainous, and looks down on the plains of Cashmere. The village of that name is situated in lat. 33° 56′ N. long. 75° 13′ E. 40 miles S. E. from the city of Cashmere.—*(Forster, &c.)*

ISLAMABAD.—A large town in the Cashmere province, situated on the north side of the Jhylum, 29 miles E. S. E. from the city of Cashmere. Lat. 33° 15. N. long. 75° 13′ E. The Jhylum here penetrates through the narrow windings of the mountains, and has a wooden bridge about 80 yards across.—*(Forster, &c.)*

BERENG.—A town in the Cashmere province, 37 miles E. from the city of Cashmere, near to which is a long defile in a mountain containing a reservoir of water seven ells square, which is considered by the Hindoos a place of great sanctity.—*(Abul Fazel, &c.)*

DUCKENPARAH *(Dakshinpara, the southern portion)*.—A district in the north-east quarter of Cashmere, on the mountains of which Abul Fazel, in 1582, says the snow never decreases, so that from the cold, the narrowness of the roads, and the great height of the mountains, they cannot be passed without extreme difficulty.—*(Abul Fazel, &c.)*

PANCHBERARAH.—This is described by Abul Fazel as a place of great sanctity, then dependent on Uneej, but which had formerly been a large city. The interior of Cashmere is so imperfectly known, that any geographical situation which could be assigned to this place would be merely conjectural.

THE

PROVINCE OF AJMEER, OR RAJPOOTANA.

(RAJPUTRANA.)

This large province is situated in the centre of Hindostan, between the 24th and 31st degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the provinces of Mooltan, Lahore, and Delhi; on the south by Gujerat and Malwah; on the east it has Delhi and Agra; and on the west Mooltan, including the long division of Sinde. In length from north to south this province may be estimated at 350 miles by 200 the average breadth. By Abul Fazel in 1582, this province is described as follows:—

"The soubah of Ajmeer is situated in the second climate. The length from Backar and the dependencies of Umbeer to Bicanere of Jelmere, is 168 coss; and the breadth from the extremity of circar Ajmeer to Banswara, includes 150 coss. On the east lies Agra; and on the north, part of Delhi; it has Gujerat on the south, and Debulpoor of Mooltan confines it on the west. The soil of this soubah is sandy, and it is necessary to dig a great depth before water can be procured, so that the success of the harvest entirely depends on the periodical rains. The winter is temperate, but the summer is intensely hot. To the south are mountains, this province abounding in strong holds. This soubah comprehends Meywar, Marwar, and Nadowty, which are separated into seven districts, subdivided into 197 pergunnahs. The names of the districts are—1. Ajmeer; 2. Chitore; 3. Rantanpoor; 4. Joudpoor; 5. Sarowy; 6. Nagore; 7. Bicanere. The measured lands are 21,435,961 begahs; the amount of the revenue 22,841,507 dams; out of which 2,326,336 dams are seyurghal. It can furnish 86,500 infantry, and 347,000 cavalry."

In delineating this province, Abul Fazel appears to have too much compressed its limits towards the south, where were the principal Rajpoot tributary states, which probably in his time had been but little explored. The province of Ajmeer is occasionally named Marwar, but this appellation ought properly to be restricted to the Joudpoor territories. The principal modern geographical and territorial subdivisions are the following, commencing from the north:—

1. The Bhatty country.
2. Bicanere.
3. Great Sandy Desert.
4. Jesselmere.
5. Joudpoor.
6. Marwar.
7. Nagore.
8. Shekawutty.
9. Jeypoor.
10. Ajmeer district.
11. Harowty.
12. Odeypoor.
13. Mewar.
14. Sarowy.

The soil of this province may well be called sandy (as it is by Abul Fazel), and its general appearance is sufficiently dismal, a considerable portion of it being absolute desert. From the western frontier of the Shekawutty country to Bahawulpoor is a distance of 280 miles, of which only the last 100 miles S. W. from Bahawulpoor is wholly destitute of inhabitants, water, and vegetation. From the Shekawutty frontier to Pooggul, a distance of 180 miles, the road is over hills and valleys of loose and deep sand. These hillocks exactly resemble such as are formed by the wind on the sea shore, but far exceeding them in height, reaching from 20 to 100 feet. They are said by the natives to shift their positions, and to alter their shapes according as the wind blows. During the summer, the passage of this portion of the desert is described as dangerous, on account of the clouds of moving sand; but in winter they exhibit a greater degree of permanence, and besides phoke, bear a sort of grass, the thorny bushes of the baubul, and the bair, or jujubé, the aggregate presenting an appearance which somewhat resembles verdure.

Among these suffocating sand hills, a miserable village is sometimes met with, consisting of a few round straw huts, with low sides and conical roofs, like little stooks of corn, surrounded by hedges of dry thorny branches; the whole extremely combustible. Surrounding these abodes of misery are a few fields, depending for moisture on dews and the periodical rains, cultivated with crops of the poorest kinds of pulse, and of bajra, or holcus spicatus, which last is raised with great difficulty. The wells are often 300 feet deep, and one in particular was found to be 345 feet; yet with this enormous descent, some are only 3 feet in diameter. An examination of the strata penetrated would be a curious and useful research. The water procured with so much trouble is always brackish, unwholesome, and extremely small in quantity. Two bullocks working one night can with ease empty a well. These wells are lined with masonry, and on the occurrence of any exigence by being covered with boards heaped over with sand, can be effectually concealed by the natives from their enemies, so that a scarcity of water is at once a cause of woe and of protection. In the midst of these burning sands, the most juicy of all fruits, the water melon, is found in astonishing profusion, growing from a small stalk not thicker than that of the common melon, and attaining the circumference of 3 and 4 feet. The optical illusion, termed mirage by the French, is common in this desert, and deceives travellers with the appearance of an extensive lake amidst parched and arid sands.

From Pooggul to Bahawulpoor the road is over a hard flat clay, which sounds under the horses feet like a board, and is wholly destitute of vegetation. Excepting the fort and pool of Moujghur, and two wells 16 miles from Bahawulpoor,

there is neither water nor inhabitants to be found, yet this is the road most frequented by caravans. On approaching within a few miles of Bahawulpoor, the desert ceases all at once, and a cultivated country, abounding with trees and water commences. In some parts this desert is 400 miles in breadth, and extends far beyond the limits of Rajpootana. On the north it reaches to the edge of the Chinaub, where it is moderately fertile; on the east it gradually mixes with the cultivated parts of the Delhi and Agra provinces; and on the south is separated from the province of Cutch by the enormous salt morass named the Runn. Such is the description of this desolate region, which is, however, within the influence of the periodical rains, which annually pour a deluge on its thirsty surface, where it is soon absorbed, and for want of population and industry lost to the service of man.

The common inhabitants of the desert are Jauts; the higher classes Rhatore Rajpoots. The first are little in stature, black in complexion, and ill looking, presenting strong appearances of wretchedness and squalid poverty. The latter are stout and handsome, with hooked noses and Jewish features, haughty in their manners, very indolent, and almost continually intoxicated with opium. The stock of the country consists of bullocks and camels, which last are numerous and sometimes used in the plough. Of the wild animals the desert rat is the most numerous, and in shape greatly resembles a squirrel. Foxes, of small sizes and different colours, also abound. Antelopes are found in some parts, and also the Goorkhur, or wild ass, mentioned in the book of Job. This quadruped more resembles a mule than an ass, and is remarkable for its shyness and speed. At a kind of shuffling trot, peculiar to itself, it will leave the fleetest horses behind.

This province is remarkable as being nearly destitute of rivers, (except in the southern extremity), although the natives have traditions of streams that formerly penetrated through particular parts of it, of which even the traces have long disappeared. In the more hilly parts of the south, mountain streams descend, but are unable to overcome the arid nature of the desert, and it would require infinite labour and a dense population to conduct canals from the northern rivers of the Punjab. Except in the hilly districts also, trees are but little seen, although much wanted to shade the parched inhabitants. The consequence is that timber for the purposes of building is extremely scarce, the nearest supply being procured from Agra. The villages are generally built of a coarse stone brought from the adjacent hills, and even the roofs are usually of the same material. When of thatch, twisted grass is very frequently substituted for rafters. In the southern quarter nature has been less severe, as there the Chumbul, Calysind, and Banass, water a portion of Rajpootana, which is also, in

general, tolerably well covered with verdure. The soil of the whole province is remarkably saline, containing many salt springs and lakes (such as that of Sambher), and producing salt and saltpetre spontaneously. Notwithstanding the combination of so many circumstances adverse to the agriculture of this province, it has been remarked, that in ordinary years there is not more variation in the price of grain throughout Ajmeer, from December to December, than in the green and fertile province of Bengal, where always before harvest grain rises to a point exceedingly distressing to the poor. Yet in the more sterile parts of Rajpootana there is only one crop.

The three grand modern divisions of Rajpootana are, 1st, Odeypoor, named also Mewar and the Rana of Chitore; 2ndly, Joudpoor, named also Marwar, and its sovereign occasionally described as the Rhatore Raja, being of that tribe; 3dly, Jeypoor, Jynagur, or Ambeer, three names of one state. These appear to have been the original Rajpoot states, the others having been formed from the dismemberment of territories from the dominions of these three: but in latter days must be added the Rajas of Jesselmere and Bicanere; and the petty chiefs of Kotah, Boondee, and Banswara. Under these heads respectively, and of the other modern territorial subdivisions, further topographical details will be found, it being intended here only to exhibit a general view of the province. Besides these native chiefs, various portions of the province were, until recently, possessed by intruders, such as Sindia and Holcar, to the first of whom the city of Ajmeer and the 46 surrounding pergunnahs belonged; and to the second the district of Tonk Rampoora. On the south-eastern quarter are the Rajas of Kotah, Boondee, and other petty Rajpoot chiefs, formerly tributary to Dowlet Row Sindia, and from the whole of the principalities of Rajpootana, owing to their discord, every freebooter who could muster sufficient force has been accustomed to levy occasional contributions.

The constitution of these countries resembles the feudal system; each district, town, and even village, being governed by petty chiefs dignified with the title of Thakoor, or Lord, who frequently yield but a nominal obedience to the person who has the reputation of being their sovereign or superior. The land rents are very low, but every village is obliged to furnish a certain number of horsemen at the shortest notice. The Rajpoots are hardy and brave, and extremely attached to their respective chiefs. They are also much addicted to the use of opium, this deleterious drug being produced by them on all occasions, and presented to visitors as betel is in other parts of India. They are usually divided into two tribes, the Rhatore and the Chohan Seesodya Rajpoots. Respecting the number of inhabitants, but a very vague conjecture can be hazarded, the extent of country not absolutely desert or uninhabited, being so enormous. By

comparing, however, the area of the province with that of others similarly situated, the population of which has been better established, there is great reason to believe the whole does not much exceed three millions of souls, in the proportion of one Mahommedan to eight Hindoos. The principal towns are Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Odeypoor, Ajmeer, Kotah, Boondee, Rantampoor, Chitore, Shahpoorah, Bicanere, and Jesselmere.

Although Rajpootana occupies the centre of Hindostan, and its eastern frontier is within 90 miles of Delhi, it was never thoroughly subdued either by the Patan or Mogul emperors. Rajas of Ajmeer are mentioned by Ferishta so early as 1008, at which period they joined a combination of Hindoo princes against Mahmood of Ghizni; and in 1193, it was conquered, or rather overrun, by Mahommed, the first Gauride sovereign of India. After this date it continued tributary to the throne of Delhi, and, on account of the refractory conduct of its chiefs, was frequently invaded by the emperors, who repeatedly took and destroyed all their principal towns. The province, notwithstanding, never became a regularly organized possession, like Delhi, Agra, and many other countries much more remote from the seat of government, but remained in a sort of half independent condition, paying a tribute, and furnishing the imperial armies with a certain number of Rajpoot mercenaries, who were always held in high estimation on account of their fidelity and bravery, and served as a counterpoise to the Mogul and Afghan soldiery.

After the death of Aurengzebe in the year 1707, and the consequent dissolution of the Mogul empire which ensued, it continued under a nominal subjection to the Delhi throne until about 1748, when total independence was assumed by its chiefs and princes. The interval elapsed since then has been occupied by internal warfare, and by invasions of the Maharattas, and other hordes of plunderers. During the latter part of the reign of Madhajee Sindia, and the commencement of that of his nephew Dowlet Row, they were near being completely subdued by the disciplined infantry under Generals du Boigne and Perron, in the pay of those two chiefs. They were relieved from their apprehensions of impending subjugation, by the depression in 1803 of their grand oppressor, Dowlet Row Sindia, whose means of inflicting evil were greatly reduced by the war into which he then entered against the British government.

The Raja of Bicanere is probably the least important of the five princes of Rajpootana. Those of Joudpoor and Jeypoor are at the head of considerable states; and the reduced power of the Odeypoor Raja is kept from total insignificance by his high rank and the respect paid to him as the purest of the Rajpoot race. In 1807, a contest arose between the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor, each pretending to the honour of marrying the daughter of this high

born chieftain; and in the mean time allowing their dominions to become a prey to Ameer Khan, Holcar, and Sindia, who pretended to espouse the cause of each respectively, and in reality plundered both. In fact, for many years past this large province has been so unceasingly harrassed and devastated by these depredators, that every one of the Rajpoot chiefs has repeatedly begged and entreated to be admitted into a federal union with the British government, offering in some cases half their dominions for protection to the remainder; but the non-interfering system adopted by the latter did not permit of these overtures being accepted. A distinct perception of the misery they had suffered was the sole motive which induced these proud and turbulent tribes so long and so unsuccessfully to seek a connexion with the British nation. This was at length conceded in 1818, when they were admitted into the general federation, by the conditions of which, mutual support in the field is plighted, while by the same instrument the feudal states (each equal and independent) are withheld from disturbing the general tranquillity by attacking each other. Their political differences are in future to be submitted to the arbitration of the British government, which averts the necessity of resorting to the sword on petty points of honour, heretofore rendered inevitable by the prejudices of the country. Where the government was exercised with any efficiency, there was no difficulty in settling the terms, which were to pay the tribute demandable by the Patans or Maharattas directly into the British treasury at Delhi, which would account for the amount with the respective parties. The great mass of the common people and cultivators are highly pleased with these arrangements, and the prospect of future safety which is afforded them; but some of the old Thakoors and higher classes of nobility are not equally satisfied with the change, as under the prior anarchy they were fast establishing a species of independence in their jaghires, which must now be relinquished.

It was an important part of the original plan not hastily to urge the whole mass of military adventurers to despair, by depriving them at once of their accustomed means of subsistence. Accordingly, Sir D. Ochterlony made the tender of service to eight of the best Patan battalions, and to about 3000 horse. The first, after pensioning off the superior native officers, were formed into four battalions for provincial duties, two of which were sent to the Delhi province, and the other two retained in Rajpootana: British officers being appointed to the command of the whole. The horse were formed into resalas of 500 each, and, as only the best were taken, rendered good service. In this manner was the destruction of the predatory Patan power, which had been expected to require the greatest exertions of military resources, wholly accomplished by the extra-

ordinary address with which Sir David Ochterlony combined negociation with skilful military movements.

By the late arrangements, the Rajpoot states have been entirely liberated from Maharatta interference, and placed under Sir David Ochterlony as resident and commander of the forces in Rajpootana, where a grand cantonment has been formed at the city of Ajmeer, which, along with the pergunnahs adjacent, was received from Sindia in exchange for a portion of the Peshwa's territories in Malwah. Since that event multitudes of people have emerged from the hills and fastnesses, where they had sought refuge, and have again occupied their ancient and long deserted villages. Security and comfort are now established where misery and terror before existed, and the ploughshare is again in peace turning up a soil, which had for many seasons never been stirred, except by the hoofs of predatory cavalry. But although the Rajpoot states by the recent course of events have gained deliverance from an oppression, more systematic, more unremitting, and more brutal, than perhaps ever before trampled on humanity, it is not to be expected that they will at once abandon their predatory habits, or that tribes, who, according to their own notions, were created for the express purpose of fighting, will so suddenly change their natures, as not to require the frequent interference of the British and their military coercion.—*(Elphinstone, Abul Fazel, Rennell, Scott, Metcalfe, Marquis Hastings, Prinsep, &c. &c. &c.)*

AJMEER *(Ajamida)*.—This town is now of secondary consideration in the province to which it has given its name, having been superseded in importance by some more modern capitals. It stands in lat. 26° 31′ N. long. 74° 28′ E. 80 miles W. S. W. from Jeypoor.

The fort of Ajmeer, named Taraghur, is built on the north-east end of a range of hills, and consists principally of a plain stone wall along the edge of a mountain, strengthened with a few round bastions. The city lies at the bottom of the hill, and is surrounded by a stone wall and ditch in bad repair. The streets are narrow and dirty, and most of the houses small and in a state of decay. It still possesses a palace, built in a garden by Shah Jehan, besides which there are scarcely any remains of magnificence to be seen, either internally or externally.

The principal attraction of Ajmeer is the tomb of Khaja Moyen ud Deen, one of the greatest Mahommedan saints that ever flourished in Hindostan, which happened about 600 years ago. The tomb is of white marble, but remarkable neither for stile, nor beauty of architecture. Although the distance from this town to Agra be 230 miles, yet the great and wise Emperor Acber made a pilgrimage on foot to the cemetery of this saint to implore divine blessings on his

family, which then consisted only of daughters, but after this pilgrimage received the addition of three sons. The peerzadas, or attendant priests, who subsist on the contributions of the pious, exceed 1100 in number, and demand, or rather extort, charity from all visitors. Madhajee and Dowlet Row Sindia, although Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion, were remarkable for their devotion to Mahommedan saints and customs. The latter bestowed a superb pall and canopy of cloth of gold on the tomb, and is particularly bountiful to the devotees and peerzadas. Four miles from Ajmeer is a remarkable place of Hindoo pilgrimage named Pooshkur (the lake or tank).

The whole country round this town forms a flat sandy amphitheatre, surrounded by low ranges of hills, which render the place extremely sultry, but it is abundantly supplied with water from two lakes lying close under the walls. The most northern is six miles in circumference, very deep, and at particular seasons both are much frequented by flocks of ducks and geese. The town and the surrounding 46 pergunnahs were subject to Dowlet Row Sindia, and twenty years ago were rented by Ambajee, and on his death by his brother Balarow. In 1800, they were held by M. Perron. The boundary to the west is at the town of Meerta, which separates Ajmeer district from Joudpoor.

Jehangeer, the son and successor of the Emperor Acber, occasionally kept his court at Ajmeer, which caused the embassy of Sir Thomas Rowe in 1676, when the East India Company had a regular factory established here. In 1818, the town and districts attached were ceded to Dowlet Row Sindia in exchange for the Vinchoor Cut possessions in Malwah, and on the 3d of July, Taraghur, the strong fortress of Ajmeer, was taken possession of, without bloodshed, by a detachment under Brigadier General Knox. One of his reasons for ceding this important city was the jealousy he entertained of his relation Bapoo Sindia. The name of Ajmeer, or Ajamida, is derived from that of an ancient monarch who ruled the province. Travelling distance from Delhi 230 miles; from Oojein 256; from Bombay 650; and from Calcutta 1030 miles.—*(Broughton, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

POOSHKUR *(a reservoir, or lake).*—This celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage is situated about 4 miles W. from the city of Ajmeer. The town, which is not large, stands on the shore of a romantic lake from which the name is derived.

JURKEIRA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 25 miles N. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 38′ N. long. 74° 48′ E.

RUPNAGUR *(Rupnagara, the handsome city).*—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 14 miles N. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 41′ N. long. 74° 30′ E.

KISHENGHUR.—This town is situated about 19 miles N. N. E. from the city of Ajmeer, in lat. 26° 37′ N. long. 74° 43′ E. It is the capital of a small but independent principality, the revenues of which in 1806, were estimated at 4

lacks of rupees. The Raja's relations, and the descendants of his family, amount in number to near 5000, and are all fed and married at the Raja's expense, his government being completely patriarchal, and in return they act as soldiers and defend the state. The Raja is of the Rhatore tribe of Rajpoots, but the majority of the cultivators are Jauts. In 1818, Raja Cullian Singh, of Kishenghur, was admitted into the British alliance on the same terms as had been granted to the Raja of Bicanere,—*(Broughton, George Thomas, &c.)*

MARONDA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 20 miles N. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 41′ N. long. 74° 40′ E.

KEYKRA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 45 miles S. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 1′ N. long. 74° 58′ E.

SAUWUR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 60 miles S. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 25° 11′ N. long. 75° 5′ E.

THE COUNTRY OF THE BHATTIES.

This territory is situated in the north-east quarter of the Ajmeer province, about the 30th degree of north latitude, and, until the course of events brought the British arms into the vicinity, was but little known even by name. It is difficult to assign definite limits to such a country and such a people, both abhorrent of definition, but the following may be considered an approximation towards accuracy. To the north it may be described as bounded by the combined streams of the Sutuleje and Beyah (the Hysudrus and Hyphasis) here named the Gurrah; on the south by the territories of the Bicanere Raja and the Shekawutty country; on the east it has the district of Hurrianna, and protected Seik chiefs in the Delhi province; and to the west the great sandy desert, of which it is in a manner a component part. The north eastern corner, in some old maps named Latty Afghany, is still wholly unknown, although within a short distance of the British military station at Ludeeanna. This great tract of waste country bordering on the western desert, forms a natural boundary to the British possessions in this quarter of Hindostan.

The portion of the Bhatty country best adapted for cultivation is along the banks of the river Cuggur, from the town of Futtehabad to Bhatneer, which is said to be rendered very productive by the overflowing of that river; but respecting its source and course our knowledge is very imperfect. The land within the influence of this inundation produces wheat, rice, and barley: the remainder of the Bhatty country, owing to the want of moisture, is unfit for the purposes of agriculture. The river Cuggur is afterwards lost in the sands to the west of Bhatneer, although it is said to have formerly joined the Sutuleje in the vicinity of Ferozepoor. About the month of March the water preserved in

the tanks dries up very rapidly, after which deep wells are the only resource for the parched cattle and inhabitants. Bhatneer and Balindah are the chief towns of the Bhatties, but those best known to the British authorities are situated in the vicinity of Hurrianna, where in some parts this tribe claim a right of pasturage, and are named Futtehabad, Sirsah, Raneeah, Beerghur, and Beeranah. There is but little commerce carried on in this country, the inhabitants having hitherto preferred thieving to every other vocation. With the exception of the sale of their surplus grain, ghee and cattle (all small in quantity except the last), they maintain but little intercourse with the neighbouring states, and that principally through petty merchants of the Sheikh Furreed sect. Their imports are coarse white cloth, sugar and salt; but the whole amount of the traffic is very inconsiderable.

The Bhatties were originally shepherds. Various tribes of them are found in the Punjab, and they are also scattered over the high grounds to the east of the Indies from the sea to Ooch. In the institutes of Acber, these tribes are by Abul Fazel named Ashambatty. Their chiefs were originally Rajpoots, but are now Mahommedans, which persuasion has been also adopted by the lower classes who were originally Jauts. They have long been noted as a plundering people, remarkable for carrying on their depredations on foot, and still more so for the length and rapidity of their pedestrian incursions. The Bhatty females are allowed to appear in public unveiled, and are not compelled to observe that species of seclusion so common all over Hindostan, especially among the followers of Mahommed.

Prior to the cession of Hurrianna to the British, the chief of the Bhatties was Khan Bahadur Khan, who in 1810 held 21 villages, including Futtehabad, Sirsah and Raneah. It was then estimated that the utmost force which the Bhatties could collect, would not exceed 10,000 men, of whom not one-sixteenth possessed fire arms. They are however very expert in conducting a night attack, and have been known to go an immense distance. In the year abovementioned Raneah formed the western boundary of Khan Bahadur's country, having an extensive tract of waste land on the north, west, and south. Bhatneer, the nearest town, is distant about 40 road miles to the west. The town of Nehar lies 43 road miles to the south, and belongs to a Shekawutty chieftain. The town of Tulwunda, subject to Raja Saheb Singh, stands about 40 road miles to the north. Some years prior to the British conquests in this part of Hindostan, the revenues of Futtehabad, Sirsah, and Raneah, were estimated at 40,000 rupees per annum. It is said to have since become less productive on account of the banks which have been constructed across the

Cuggur river by the Seik chiefs to the north-west, which have prevented these pergunnahs from receiving their due share of the stream. It was also calculated that if all the Bhatty country taken possession of in 1801 had been retained, it would have yielded a revenue of 80,000 rupees per annum, although great distress had been caused by a deficiency of rain in this arid region.

On the first occupation of the Hurrianna province in 1809, nothing was left undone to conciliate the Bhatties, who were assured that their frontier would be no longer disturbed by any banditti from the Hurrianna country, as had hitherto been the case under the native governments. The Bhatty chiefs were in their turn solicited to restrain the predatory habits of their tribes, and suppress all aggressions on a friendly territory; but the fact was that neither Bahadur Khan, nor any other chief, had sufficient controul over this lawless horde, which contemned all authority that interfered with their schemes of plunder. Bahadur Khan also declined affording his assistance, declaring that he was apprehensive of being entrapped and made prisoner, as had happened during the Gallo Maharatta sway in Upper Hindostan.

All amicable overtures being rejected, and the aggressions on the inhabitants of Hurrianna continuing, an expedition was marched into the Bhatty country in December, 1810, under Col. Adams, when Bahadur Khan was expelled, and Futtehabad and the other refractory towns submitted without resistance. On this occasion Zabeta Khan (the son of Bahadur Khan) joined the British camp without stipulating for any terms, in consideration of which unconditional submission all his country was restored to him with the exception of Futtehabad, which was retained as a frontier post, from whence a garrison could superintend the motions of this unquiet race, whom it was difficult to wean from the predatory habits to which they had been accustomed from time immemorial. The towns of Beerghur and Beeranneh were also reannexed to the district of Hurrianna, from which they had been separated. In making these arrangements it was judged expedient that Zabeta Khan should receive back his territories unencumbered by any tributary engagement, as the payment of a tribute virtually implied an obligation on the superior power to protect its tributary, which might eventually have proved embarrassing, and was at the same time completely at variance with a fundamental maxim of British policy, as referring to the native principalities of Hindostan. For some time afterwards tranquillity prevailed throughout the Bhatty country; but in 1818, they again became restless, and possessed themselves of Futtehabad, which had been held by the Seiks under the authority of the British government. A strong detachment was in consequence again marched into the district, for the purpose of destroying all

the petty forts and expelling the agitators, which service was effected without encountering any serious opposition.—*(George Thomas, Lieut. White, Col. Adams, Archibald Seton, &c. &c. &c.)*

FUTTEHABAD.—This town lies on the south-east bank of the Cuggur river, about 35 miles distance from Hansi, and 30 from Hissar. The road from Hansi is good, and plenty of water is procurable at all seasons. At Futtehabad there is a large brick fort with high and thin walls, strengthened on the inside with buttresses of earth, but without a ditch. There is a small ditch round the town, which is populous, and as is usual in this tract, most of the male inhabitants (in 1810 estimated at 5000 persons) carry arms. On its capture by Colonel Adams in 1810, two guns and a considerable quantity of grain were found in the fortress. The country between this place and Bat Summund is almost one continued jungle for 30 miles, affording excellent shelter to the Bhatty thieves, and according to the newspapers full of lions.—*(Archibald Seton, &c. &c.)*

SIRSAH.— This town is situated about 30 miles to the westward of Futtehabad, within which distance there are not above ten villages. From Sirsah it is 16 miles to Raneah, with two villages, Jemar and Raypoor, on the road. Forty-five miles to the westward of Raneah lies Bhatneer. At Sirsah there is a gurry or mud fort much out of repair, which, however, in 1803 withstood an attack of the Maharatta infantry, assisted by one of the Begum Somroo's corps. The town Sirsah contains about 600 inhabitants.—*(Archibald Seton, &c. &c.)*

RANEAH.—This place is 14 miles to the west of Sirsah, and contains a fort without guns, which was formerly the residence of Zabeta Khan, the Bhatty chieftain, who had a garrison consisting of a few horse and foot. In 1810 the population of Raneah was estimated at 5000 inhabitants. At Danoor, within six miles of this place, there is a fine jeel or shallow lake, which is said to be a continuation of the one at Jindah, the whole (if this report be correct) extending to a distance of 30 miles, with a wheat cultivation on its banks. We are not informed if these jeels be perrennial or only during and after the rainy season.—*(E. Gardner, Colonel Adams, &c.)*

BEERGUR.—This is an open village, 35 miles from Hissar, and 3 from Futtehabad, and stands to the south side of the Cuggur river.

BEERANAH.—This is an open village situated to the south of the Cuggur, 60 miles to the north west of Hansi and 10 from Futtehabad, encompassed by a ruinous mud wall, without a ditch. In 1810 Beeranah was supposed to contain 3000 inhabitants, of whom 150 horse and 100 foot were armed with matchlocks, swords, and shields; spears are common to the whole population: There are said to be 16 wells on the outside of Beeranah to the east and west, but none to north or south.—*(E. Gardner, &c. &c.)*

SEERAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 45 miles E. from the town of Bhatneer. Lat. 29° 28′ N. long. 74° 38′ E.

BHATNEER *(Bhatnir).*—This town, the modern capital of the Bhatty tribe, is of some antiquity, as it is said to have been taken and destroyed by Timour in 1398, when the country was probably better cultivated and the town of greater importance than it is at present, otherwise the one would not have subsisted his army, nor the other attracted his notice. It stands in lat. 29° 36′ N. long. 73° 55′ E. about 130 miles N. N. E. from Bicanere, and 100 N. W. from Hissar. The whole country west of Hissar to Bhatneer and beyond it is an immense plain. The stages are of considerable length and water very scanty. The soil is described by the natives as being of a hard substance and blueish colour, so as at a distance to have the appearance of water. Bhatneer was taken from the Bhatties in 1807, by the Raja of Bicanere, who still retained possession in 1810. —*(Lieut. White, E. Gardner, &c. &c.)*

BATINDAH.—This town is situated in lat. 30° 12′ N. long. 74° 48′ E. about 85 miles S. W. from Ludeeanna. Formerly the country surrounding this town was distinguished by the name of the Lacky Jungle, much celebrated for the goodness of its pasture lands and its excellent breed of horses. Thirty years ago this jungle was described as forming a circle of 40 miles in diameter, and the then Raja of the Lacky Jungle paid tribute to the Seik Raja of Pattiallah in the Delhi province. The soil being sandy a great depth must be penetrated before water is reached. The original breed of the horses reared in this tract of country was much improved by Persian horses, introduced during the invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmed Shah Abdalli.—*(George Thomas, &c.)*

BICANERE *(Bicanir.)*

This Rajpoot principality occupies the centre of the Ajmeer province, and is situated principally between the 27th and 29th degrees of north latitude. Like all other districts in this waste of sand its limits are difficult to settle, vast tracts being claimed and rejected by all parties, as political circumstances happen to support or oppose their pretensions. To the north it is bounded by the great Ajmeer desert and the Bhatty country; to the south by the Joudpoor and Jeypoor dominions; on the east it has the British district of Hurrianna and the Shekawutty country; and on the west Jesselmere and the great desert, into which it merges. Under their local peculiarities it is a curious fact that the Hindoos of the sands of Bicanere should particularly object to the eating of fish, (a temptation they are rarely subjected to) as sinful.

The surface of the country is flat but rather elevated; the soil a light brown sand, which absorbs the rain almost as soon as it falls. Wells are consequently

of absolute necessity, are lined with brick, and generally from 100 to 200 feet in depth. Each family has besides a cistern for the preservation of rain water. With the exception of a few villages on the eastern frontier, the crops of Bicanere are very precarious, and greatly dependent on the periodical rains. Bejurah and the other kinds of Indian pulse are almost the only produce, the inhabitants trusting in a great measure for a supply of provisions to the neighbouring province. Horses and bullocks of an inferior breed are nearly the sole export. The imports are coarse and fine rice, sugar, opium, and indigo. The former articles are usually brought from Lahore by the way of Rajghur and Chooroo. Salt is procured from Sambher, and wheat from the Jeypoor country; spices, copper, and coarse cloth, by the road of Jesselmere. The chief strong hold is the city of Bicanere, but Chooroo, Rajeghaum, and Bahudra are reckoned strong places by the natives. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this country is described as follows: "Circar Beykaneer, containing 11 mahals; revenue 4,750,000 dams. This circar furnishes 1200 cavalry and 50,000 infantry."

The Bicanere Raja is of the Rhatore caste, and of the same family with the Joudpoor Raja; the elder branch having established itself at Joudpoor, and the junior at Bicanere. He is the least important of the five princes of Rajpootana; but it does not appear that he ever paid tribute to the Maharattas, for which exemption he was probably indebted to the extent and sterility of his dominions. In 1809, his revenue amounted to only £50,000 per annum, but as his troops are paid by assignments of land, he is enabled to maintain 2,000 horse and 8,000 foot, with 35 pieces of artillery. His first frontier town towards the Shekawutty country is Chooroo, which may be reckoned the second town in his dominions. The cultivators are mostly Jauts, some converted, and some not. In the Lord's prayer, as given in the Bicanere language, 29 words out of 32 were identified by the missionaries as radically the same with those in the Hindostany and Bengalese specimens.

In 1808 these miserable territories were invaded by five different armies, one of which belonging to the Joudpoor Raja, 15,000 strong, arrived within a few miles of the capital; another smaller force was equally near, while the remainder were endeavouring to reach the same point by different routes, and predatory horse had been let loose to cut off all supplies of provisions. The Raja of Bicanere on the other hand, as a measure of defence, filled up all the wells within ten miles of his capital, and trusted for deliverance to the desolation that surrounded him. This invasion was occasioned by the interference of the Bicanere chief in the contest carried on between the Rajas of Joudpoor and Jeypoor, each pretending to the hand of the princess of Odeypoor. In this distress, in 1809, the Bicanere Raja earnestly solicited the favourable mediation

of the British government with the Joudpoor chieftain; but he was informed in reply, that although the Governor in Council entertained a high sense of the friendly attention paid to the British envoy (Mr. Elphinstone) while passing through the Bicanere territories, they could not be induced to deviate from that system of non-interference in the affairs of other states, which constituted a fundamental principle of their general policy.

But on another occasion in the same year this chief had a more successful result to his suit, when he applied to the resident at Delhi for the restitution of two villages in the vicinity of Behil on the borders of Hurrianna, of which he had been deprived by the adventurer George Thomas. On investigation it appeared that these villages had formerly composed part of the Bicanere dominions, but as they were in the possession of George Thomas in the year 1801, when General Perron subverted the power of that leader, they were considered as an appendage to Hurrianna, when that province was ceded by Dowlet Row Sindia in 1803. It was also discovered that when George Thomas took possession of them they were totally waste, and that he peopled them; but the British government being desirous of gratifying the Raja, and the villages being besides of inconsiderable value, they were restored to him without reservation. Although in appearance sufficiently employed in the defence of his own territories against his more powerful neighbours, this chief has made several external conquests, and among others in 1807 Bhatneer, the capital of the Bhatty country, of which in 1810 he still retained possession. His existence as an independent prince was further secured by being admitted on the 13th of March, 1818, within the line of British protection. The suppression of robbery, the restoration of plundered property, the obligation of paying the expense of any British force he might solicit, and of rendering military aid according to his means, were the only terms exacted. The Bicanere chief never having paid any tribute, was consequently on this occasion not required to pay any.—*(Public MS. Documents, Elphinstone, Prinsep, George Thomas, Metcalfe, &c. &c. &c.)*

BICANERE *(Bicanir)*.—This town is situated about 260 miles W. by S. from the city of Delhi, in lat. 27° 57′ N. long. 73° 2′ E. It is placed in the midst of a tract of more than ordinary desolation, and owing to its contrast with the surrounding wilderness of sand presents externally an appearance of magnificence, which closer inspection does not justify. Within ten yards of the walls the country is as waste as the wildest part of Arabia; but on the northern side there is something that looks like a woody valley. The most remarkable and pleasing sight here is a well of fine water, immediately under the fort where the Raja resides, 300 feet deep, and from 15 to 20 in diameter. Four buckets,

each drawn by a pair of bullocks, are worked at a time, and when a bucket is let down, the noise made when it strikes the water is like the report of a great gun.

The town of Bicanere is surrounded by a fine wall, strengthened by many round towers, and crowned with the usual Indian battlements. It contains some elevated houses and some temples, one of which has a lofty spire, and at one corner there is a high showy fort. Bicanere is distinguished by the whiteness of its buildings, and the absence of trees, which give most Indian towns the appearance of woods, rather than of inhabited places. Most of the dwellings are merely huts, having mud walls painted red. The fort is a confused assemblage of towers and battlements, overtopped by houses crowded together. In extent it is about a quarter of a mile square, encompassed by a wall 30 feet high, with a good dry ditch. By the natives it is reckoned a place of considerable strength, but the chief security of both city and fort arises from the scarcity of water in the surrounding country. In the Raja's service are usually several Europeans of different nations, who reside within the fort. The native inhabitants wear loose cloths of white cotton or muslin, like the Hindostanies, but are distinguishable from the latter by their Rajpoot features and remarkable turban, rising high on their head like a mitre.—(*Elphinstone, G. Thomas, 11th Register, &c.*)

CHOOROO.—This ranks as the second town in the Bicanere dominions, and stands in lat. 28° 12′ N. long. 74° 35′ E. 107 miles W. by N. from the city of Bicanere. Chooroo is one mile and a half in circumference, without including the suburbs which are mean, and being situated among naked sand hills, its external appearance is handsome. The houses and walls are built of a limestone of so pure a white, as to give every thing composed of it an extremely neat appearance. This material, however, although externally so handsome, is very soft and crumbles to a white powder, mixed in some parts with shells. Large beds of it are found in many parts of the Ajmeer desert, which, advancing west from Chooroo, increases in sterility. Chooroo is reckoned the second town in the Bicanere dominions, but its chief is rather a dependent on, than a subject of, the Bicanere Raja. In 1817 it was plundered by one of Meer Khan's sirdars, and in 1818 was visited by a British detachment. Purthi Singh, the governor, had abandoned it with his followers the day before their arrival, and also many of the inhabitants. A party of British troops was left in charge until the Bicanere Raja's officers could arrive and receive charge, an arrangement so adverse to the wishes of the inhabitants, that they threatened to emigrate to the Raja of Jeypoor's territories.—(*Elphinstone, &c. &c.*)

POOGGUL.—This village is situated about 42 miles N. W. from the town of Bicanere, in lat. 28° 26′ N. long. 72° 31′ E. Pooggul is one of the principal

stages on the road through the desert to Bahawulpoor, as rain water is here preserved in small vaulted reservoirs, and sold to the caravans. There is well water also, but it is rather brackish. The village, which belongs to Bicanere, consists of a few miserable straw huts, in the midst of a sea of sand, without a vestige of vegetation.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

THE PRINCIPALITY OF JESSELMERE.

This portion of Rajpootana is situated between the 26th and 28th degrees of north latitude, and is nearly surrounded by the great desert, of which it may almost be described as a part, so barren and unproductive is the soil, owing to a deficiency of water. It forms the extreme boundary of the inhabited country towards the Indus on the west; towards the east it comes in contract with the district of Marwar belonging to the Raja of Joudpoor. Owing to the extreme sterility of this region, it has hitherto attracted but little attention, and remains almost unknown. The greater part of the surface presents to the view an uninterrupted tract of sand, intersected by no streams, and the scanty supply of water only procurable from wells of a vast depth under ground. Being, however, within the influence of the periodical rains, its desert condition must in some degree be attributed to the nature of the government, consisting of many turbulent petty chiefs, with the Raja of Jesselmere for a nominal superior. It is consequently but little cultivated, and thinly inhabited by a Rajpoot tribe of Bhatties; but the Jesselmere chief is said to be of the Joudpoor family. Jesselmere, which gives its name to the province, is the principal town; the rest answer rather to the description of hamlets collected in the vicinity of wells and pasturage.

According to tradition the Rajas of Jesselmere descended from the fourth of the Jadoos, (surnamed Bhatti, and preserved by the care of the goddess Bhavani Hinglais after the destruction of their brethren,) on whom she subsequently bestowed Jesselmere. Their history since then until 1808, an interval of 5,000 years, stands wholly unrecorded. In that year the Raja of Jesselmere applied to Mr. Seton, resident at Delhi, representing the strong desire he felt to visit the banks of the sacred Ganges for devotional purposes, provided he could receive the permission of the British government, and assurances of respectful treatment; for it appeared he had received a very erroneous impression of the British, both individually and as a nation. He was encouraged to proceed on his pilgrimage without fear, and his confidence being increased, he adverted to his political situation, stating, that many chiefs had by fraud and violence obtained fragments of the Mogul empire, which they ruled with an iron hand, while he and his ancestors had remained at rest from the remotest antiquity within the limits of their own territories; but that even these were now endangered, such encroach-

ments being daily made on his hereditary possessions as threatened utterly to annihilate his principality. He, therefore, appealed to the British government as sovereigns of Hindostan, to whose protection he was entitled, and entreated them to save for him his remaining portion of country, the natural barrenness and seclusion of which could not preserve it from molestation. To this request a conciliatory answer was sent with some presents; but the Raja was informed that consistently with the principles that regulated the conduct of the British government, all interference with his political concerns must be declined; but he would experience every office of friendship due to a friendly neighbour, and the utmost hospitality during his contemplated pilgrimage. Affairs continued under these circumstances until 1818, when the Jesselmere Raja was admitted into the British alliance on the same terms as had been granted to the Raja of Bicanere.—*(Public MS. Documents, Metcalfe, &c. &c. &c.)*

JESSELMERE.—This town is situated near the centre of the Ajmeer province, about 165 miles due east from the Indus. Lat. 26° 43′ N. long. 70° 54′ E.

BEEJNOTE.—A town in the Ajmeer province, about 15 miles east of the town of Jesselmere.

JOUDPOOR *(Yuddhapoor, the City of War).*

An important Rajpoot principality in the province of Ajmeer, of which it occupies most of the central and eastern portions, and situated in general between the 25th and 27th degrees of north latitude. The ancient name was Marwar, Joudpoor being merely a subdivision of that large district, the Raja of which is occasionally called the Marwar or Rhatore Raja. The dominions of this potentate are very extensive, but the boundaries difficult to define. In 1809 the town of Amercote on the borders of Sinde was in his possession, while to the east his territories comprehended the town of Meerta, making altogether a distance of 250 miles. To the south-west his dominions reached still further, as when Raidun Khan, a Baloochee chief, established himself in Rahdunpoor to the west of the Baunass river, a Joudpoor detachment held possession of Futtehpoor, a small fort two miles still further west. On the north there are Jesselmere and Bicanere; and on the east Ajmeer, Jeypoor, and the Shekawutty country.

The general soil of the Joudpoor territories is arid, but on the south-eastern and eastern frontiers it is more productive, being watered with various small hill streams; on the west it sinks into the desert. Lands under tillage yield wheat, barley, and other sorts of grain and pulse common in India; the cultivators are mostly Jauts. The country also contains lead mines. On account of the sandy nature of the surface, which renders the road impassable for carriages, the merchandize is transported on camels and bullocks, which are of a superior quality,

and in great demand all over India. The trade from Surat chiefly passes through Gujerat and Ahmedabad; from Tatta through Sinde and Jesselmere, and from the Deccan by Mewar and Kotah. The town of Pawlee is the greatest commercial mart in this part of Rajpootana.

The imports into Joudpoor consist of cloths, shawls, spices, opium, rice, sugar, steel, and iron. The exports are salt, camels, bullocks, and horses. The latter are strong, bony, and of a good stature, and the breed of cattle in general is excellent. The principal inhabitants of Joudpoor are Rhatore Rajpoots, who are a brave handsome race of men, of the purest castes, the Sesodya, the Cutcheva, the Addah, and the Bawtee. The Raja's dominions are partitioned among many jaghiredars, who hold lands on the condition of supporting a certain number of troops for the service of the prince in the time of war; but as these lands descend from father to son in defiance of the prince, most of these jaghiredars may be considered as petty chiefs nearly independent. The country of Joudpoor or Marwar is asserted to have been formerly much more populous than it is at present.

Raja Jeswunt Singh, one of Aurengzebe's best generals, was Raja of this country. When he died near Cabul, in 1581, Aurengzebe gave orders forcibly to convert his children, in defending whom most part of their Rajpoot attendants perished. He expelled the family from the fort, and compelled them to take refuge in the hills and forests; such was the reward the family of one of his most faithful generals received. The family, on the death of Aurengzebe, regained possession, his grandson Ajeet Singh, termed the hereditary zemindar of Joudpoor by the historian Eradut Khan, having rebelled and destroyed the mosques which the emperor had erected.

In 1803, Raja Bheem Singh died, leaving his widow pregnant of a son, afterwards named Dhokul Singh. Before the birth of this descendant, however, the throne was seized by his uncle Raja Maun Singh, and the young chief was conveyed by his party to the protection of Ubhee Singh, a Shekawutty, where he remained waiting for an opportunity to expel his uncle and rival; such being nearly the situation of all the native states of Hindostan, a sovereign on the throne, and a pretender to it supported by a strong party in the centre of the court and country.

In 1806, dissensions arose between the Rajas of Joudpoor and Jeypoor, each asserting his claim to espouse the daughter of the Rana of Odeypoor, while Sindia and Holcar, with ostensible professions of amity, were privately extorting money from each of them as the price of abstaining from assisting his rival. Of the result of such a complicated system of fraud and intrigue no rational conjecture could be formed, and after the rupture took place, many vicissitudes were

experienced. The Jeypoor Raja having defeated the Joudpoor troops, took the town of Joudpoor, besieged the capital, and appeared in the high road to the accomplishment of his wishes, while the cause of his rival looked proportionably blank; but just as the means and fortitude of the garrison were nearly exhausted, mutinies arose in the Jeypoor army, many Rajpoot chiefs forsook his standard, and Meer Khan (his subsidiary), under pretence of a breach of pecuniary engagements, ravaged the Jeypoor territories, and compelled the Raja to retreat from Joudpoor with the utmost precipitation, his own capital being in imminent danger of experiencing the fate he had destined for that of his rival.

In this extremity the Jeypoor chief, with the view of distracting the leaders who supported Maun Singh, brought forward Dhokal Singh, the legitimate heir of the elder branch of the family, but he made no progress, and in the end of 1807, the only place of importance possessed by his adherents was the town of Nagore. In order to interest the British government in his favour, Dhokul Singh's party offered to pay 12 lacks of rupees in cash, cede five pergunnahs in perpetuity, and subsidize a British force; but this, like many other propositions for the extension of territory, was rejected as inconsistent with the general policy of the British nation.

In conformity to a long established custom in Hindostan, it was usual when a powerful Raja succeeded to his deceased father to solicit the Mogul to honour him with a Ticka, as a mark of investiture, or at least of royal approbation; which ceremony consists in having the forehead anointed with a preparation of bruised sandal wood. Although this inunction had long ceased to be a necessary token of confirmation of the successor's right, it was still considered so gratifying a mark of distinction that towards the close of 1807, Raja Maun Singh anxiously entreated the British government to interfere with the Emperor of Delhi, Acber the Second, to obtain it for him. The British government, however, declined interfering, the right of conferring the mark of distinction in question being considered as one of those obsolete acts of sovereignty, the revival of which was particularly objectionable, and by the natives it would have been considered as recognizing the rights of one of the contending parties, and departing from the line of strict neutrality which had invariably been observed. Of this the Raja was apprized, and the inutility of the act as a mark of confirmation represented to him, as well as the folly of making an unnecessary reference of the validity of his title to a power, which neither claimed nor exercised a power to grant or withhold it. In the interval which has elapsed since that period, Maun Singh maintained his seat on the Joudpoor throne, and even extended his conquests, while the heart of his own dominions was annually ravaged by Sindia, Holcar, Meerkhan, or any other plunderer who could muster a sufficient number of predatory followers. In 1805, the Joudpoor revenues were estimated by Mr. Metcalfe at 50

lacks of rupees; but the insanity of the Raja and the youth and inexperience of his son have combined to reduce the strength, and desolate the provinces of this great principality. In this condition it remained until 1818, when it was the second of the Rajpoot states that entered into engagements with the British government. Sindia was the only power who had any legal demands for tribute, which nominally amounted to 180,000 rupees per annum, but seldom more than 108,000 were actually paid, and at this last amount the tribute to the British for protection was fixed in the treaty. The expulsion of all the thanas, or military posts placed in the country by Ameer Khan, was the first benefit that resulted from these arragements, which were concluded at Delhi on the 6th January, 1818. In addition to the tribute above mentioned, the Raja engaged to furnish a contingent of 1,500 horse, and it is to be hoped that his country will in future be prevented from continuing to be, what it has so long been, a nursery and arena for freebooters.—*(Archibald Seton, Public MS. Documents, G. Thomas, Prinsep, Metcalfe, Scott, &c. &c. &c.)*

JOUDPOOR.—The capital of the Joudpoor principality, situated about 320 miles S. W. from Delhi, in lat. 26° 18′ N. long. 73° E. Travelling distance from Oujein 260 miles.

MEERAT *(Meerta)*.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 36 miles W. by N. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 38′ N. long. 73° 49′ E. This place belongs to the Joudpoor Raja, and was formerly the boundary between his territories and those of Dowlet Row Sindia.

MARWAR *(Marvar)*.—A large and ancient division of the Ajmeer province, situated principally between the 26th and 28th degrees of north latitude, but in modern times better known as the Rajah of Joudpoor's territories. In former times the word Marwar, as including the town and fortress of Ajmeer, became almost synonimous with the name of the province. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Marwar is in length 100 coss, and in breadth 60 coss. Circar Ajmeer, Joudpoor, Sarowy, Nagore, and Bicanere, are dependent on it. The Rhatore tribe have inhabited this division for ages. Here are many forts, of which the following are the most famous, viz. Ajmeer, Joudpoor, Bicanere Jesselmere, Amercote, and Jyenagur (Jeypoor)." On investigation the missionaries found that the Lord's prayer in the Marwar language contained 28 of the 32 words particularized in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

In 1811, the annual fall of rain, never over abundant, failed in Marwar, which in addition to the desolation caused by clouds of locusts, drove the inhabitants of that unfortunate country for subsistence to the centre of Gujerat. The misery still pursued them, for in 1812, Gujerat also experienced a failure of rain, and consequent scarcity, which soon reduced the already half starved emigrants to a most deplorable condition; yet they most unaccountably uniformly declined em-

ployment when tendered, even with the prospect of death as the consequence of their refusal. The vicinity of every large town in Gujerat was then crowded with these wretched creatures, infirm, dying, dead, and half eaten by dogs, which acquired an unusual degree of ferocity from having so long fed on human bodies. Even the distinction of caste was at length forgotten, and the Brahmin was seen selling his wife for 2 or 3 rupees to such as would receive her. At Baroda, the Guicowar's capital, the weekly return of Marwarie burials exceeded 500 bodies. Much was done by native charity, large subscriptions were raised, aided by a liberal sum from the Baroda government, but all unavailing, the extent of the calamity exceeding human power of efficient alleviation. In the mean time these unfortunate emigrants spread themselves all over the Gujerat province, from the gulf of Cutch to Surat, and in many instances to Bombay; and there is reason to believe that of the whole mass not one in an hundred ever returned within the limits of his native province.—*(Abul Fazel, Carnac, &c.)*

NAGORE *(Nagara)*.—A Rajpoot district in the Ajmeer province, situated principally between the 27th and 28th degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Hadowty, called also circar Nagore, is inhabited by the Hadeh tribe. It contains 31 mahals, measurement 837,450 begahs; revenue 40,389,830 dams; seyurghal 308,051 dams. This circar furnishes 4,500 cavalry and 22,000 infantry." The town of Nagore stands in lat. 27° 8′ N. long. 73° 33′ E. about 68 miles N. N. E. from the city of Joudpoor, and in 1807, was the only place of importance possessed by the adherents of Dhokul Singh, the young and legitimate pretender to the Joudpoor throne.

DIDWANA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 40 miles N. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 27° 18′ N. long. 74° 21′ E.

JAHIL.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 58 miles N. W. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 27° 10′ N. long. 73° 56′ E.

THE SHEKAWUTTY COUNTRY.

This district is situated about the 28th degree of north latitude, and is said to have received its name from a predatory tribe of Arabs. It extends about 80 miles from north to south, and rather less from east to west, but its limits on all sides are extremely ill defined, and fluctuate with political circumstances. To the north it is bounded by the British district of Hurrianna; on the south by those of the Jeypoor Raja; to the east it has Hurrianna and territories subject to the Macherry Raja, and to the west the dominions of Joudpoor and Bicanere. The surface of Shekawutty presents to the view a sandy plain, scattered with rocky hills, ill watered and badly cultivated; yet it contains several considerable towns, the most noted of which are Seekur, Futtehpoor, Khetri and Gooda. The sands are interspersed with tufts of bug grass, the baubool (mi-

mosa Arabica), the kurreel or caper tree, and a bush named phoke, which last is said to be peculiar to the great Ajmeer desert and its borders. The country is naturally strong, being encircled by hills and secured by passes, the principal of which are Ketree, Kundeela, Oudipoor and Babhye. Near the last is a copper mine.

The Shekawutty chiefs are a military class, feudatories to the Raja of Jeypoor, by whose assistance they were enabled, at no very remote period, to wrest their present territories from the Kyankhanies, a tribe of converted Hindoos. In 1805, the principal Shekawutty chiefs were, 1st. Row Bishen Singh of Munnohurpoor, nominally the head of them all. In returning the respectful salute of the other chiefs he brings his hand no higher than his breast, and this marks his superiority.

2d. Meer Singh Dass and Pertaub Singh, the Rajas of Kundeela and Rewarra, then imprisoned at Jeypoor.

3d. Ubhee Singh and various other chiefs of the Khetri caste. Ubhee Singh held the district of Katpolee from the British government for 20,000 rupees per annum.

Bhuil is a good sized town in the Shekawutty country, about eighteen miles W. by S. of Khiro. In consequence of its being situated on the high road from the Punjab to Bicanere, its inhabitants were accustomed to extort heavy contributions from the merchants, and frequently plundered them altogether. In 1806, Saheb Singh, the Raja of Bicanere, accompanied by his allies, laid siege to Bhuil, and forced its chief to restore the property of which he had robbed the merchants, and also to give hostages for his future good behaviour. The Shekawutty troops are mostly cavalry. In 1813, a party of them, of the Silhedee tribe, made a predatory excursion to the Hurrianna, near Behil, and plundered the country. Although nominally the subjects of the Jeypoor Raja, they seldom paid any regard to his mandates, in consequence of which, the British government gave orders, that these freebooters should in future be pursued across the frontier into the country which afforded them an asylum, and destroyed wherever they could be found. In 1818, the Shekawutties, after an unusual interval of tranquillity (4 years), again became troublesome, in consequence of which a detachment marched into their country, where it captured their wall towns and levelled many of their mud forts; but the tribes and their chiefs still continued refractory, and rejected all subordination to their feudal superior the Jeypoor Raja.—*(Metcalfe, Lieut. White, Elphinstone, &c. &c. &c.)*

KAUTERY.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 76 miles N. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 59′ N. long. 75° 34′ E.

KUNDAILA.—A town in the Cjmeer province, 52 miles N. N. W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 35′ N. long. 75° 15′ E.

ISLAMPOOR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 85 miles N. by W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 28° 6′ N. long. 75° 15′ E.

JUNDAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 75 miles N. N. W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 50′ N. long. 72° 17′ E.

FUTTYPOOR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 85 miles N. W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 50′ N. long. 74° 45′ E.

SIKAR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 70 miles N. W. from Jeypoor. Lat. 27° 30′ N. long. 74° 45′ E.

JHOONJOONA—A town in the Shekawutty country, 112 miles W. S. W. from Delhi. Lat. 28° 2′ N. long. 75° 22′ E. This is a handsome town, ornamented with some trees and gardens, which make a pleasing appearance in the desert by which it is surrounded. It appertains to independent Rajas of the Shekawutty tribe.—*(Elphinstone, &c.)*

JEYPOOR OR JYENAGUR *(Jayanagara).*

A Rajpoot principality in the province of Ajmeer, situated principally between the 26th and 28th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by the dominions of the Macherry Raja, and Shekawutty; on the south by Kerowly, Tonk, Boondee, and other petty states; to the east it has the Macherry and Bhurtpoor territories, and on the west the district of Ajmeer and the Joudpoor territories. In length the dominions of Jeypoor have been estimated at 150 miles, by 70 from east to west; but it has rarely happened that the whole of this space has been under actual submission to the nominal chief.

The eastern, north-eastern, southern, and south-western tracts of this country, produce wheat, cotton, and tobacco, and in general whatever is common to other parts of India; but the country is mostly watered from wells; the streams being few and scanty. The northern and north-western districts are more sandy and not so well supplied with moisture as the central parts, but in the mountainous territory some rivulets are found. The Raja is in possession of Sambher, which yields plenty of salt, as do likewise the districts of Singanah and Berat; in addition to these, the country produces copper, alum, bluestone, and verdigris. In most parts of Jeypoor there are good cattle, but not equal in quality to those of Joudpoor, and in several of the towns, manufactories of cloth, swords, and matchlocks. The imports are fine cloth, tissue, the manufactures of Benares, and shawls from Cashmere. From Gujerat and Tatta are supplied opium, lead, and sheet copper; and from Persia, fruit and horses. The caravans formerly passed by Bicanere, but more recently through Joudpoor and Jesselmere.

In the southern portion of the Jeypoor territories, the cultivators are named

Meenas, and are of the Khetri caste, but not styled Rajpoots; the latter thinking it derogatory to follow any other profession than that of arms. The Rajpoots, however, frequently rent large farms, but employ Meenas to cultivate them. In the districts of Kotah and Boondee, which are to the south of Jeypoor, the Meenas inhabiting the hills and jungles, devote themselves exclusively to thieving, and eat meat and drink spirits without scruple. In other quarters of this state, the great mass of cultivators are Jauts, who are kept by the Rajpoots in the strictest obedience. The latter follow the practice, so general in Rajpootana, of occasionally putting their female offspring to death.

The Jeypoor territory is compact and comprehends the most populous and fertile portion of the Ajmeer province. It also abounds with fortresses, some of them the strongest in Hindostan, and deemed by the natives impregnable, particularly that which defends the capital and Rantampoor. Besides these, there are a great number of small forts scattered over the country, and half of the villages are fortified with walls and ditches. Many of the Jeypoor fortresses are built on the top or on the slopes of hills, covering the towns at their base, which, although extremely faulty as a defensive arrangement, has a very imposing effect when viewed from a distance. The hills on the other hand are too low for grandeur, and too barren to be pleasing. In 1805, the revenues of Jeypoor were estimated at 60 lacks of rupees, and the military force at 8000 infantry, and 10,000 cavalry, besides numerous adherents. The respective Rajpoot chiefs, for the most part, held their lands on the feudal system of tenure; over which the Raja, if a weak man, has little power. The durbar, or court, held at the capital, is distinguished by its pride, splendour, and formality. In the Lord's prayer, as given in the Jeypoor language, 29 of the words can be traced as being the same with the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

The tribe of Rajpoots to which the Jeypoor family belong, is named Cutchwa, and is of the Suryabans, or children of the sun, being descended from Rama, the celebrated Raja of Oude's second son, named Cush. From the latter, the Jeypoor chronologers reckon 210 Rajas in succession to Prithi Raja, who ascended the throne in 1502.

The late Raja Jugguth Singh succeeded his father, Pertaub Singh, in 1803. The latter had possessed himself of the government on the death of his elder brother, to the exclusion of that brother's son, Maun Singh, the legitimate heir. In 1805, Maun Singh was at Gualior with Sindia, ready to make an attempt on the throne when circumstances suited. Juggeth Singh, his successful rival, was then described as weak and cruel. During the British contests with Sindia and Holcar, it was the policy of the Jeypoor court to keep on good terms with all parties while the struggle was doubtful, and to side with the strongest

when the success was complete. While Holcar had a transitory prosperity, the Jeypoor Raja collected a force to assist him, which, after his complete discomfiture by Lord Lake, was destined to co-operate with the British army; but on a report of a general confederacy of the Maharattas, and of Sindia's advance from the southward, it was countermanded. This feeble policy was practised by all the Rajpoot states with a view to their own preservation.

During this campaign, the adversaries of the British government made use of arguments addressed to the religious prejudices of the Hindoos, and the inexpiable crimes of beef eating and peacock shooting were sounded against the British character through every court of Hindostan. The commander-in-chief, (Lord Lake) in consequence issued a proclamation, prohibiting the slaughter of any of the cow species in the neighbourhood of any of the holy places of Mathura and Bindrabund, which had the most beneficial effect in pacifying the minds of the Hindoos. As by the tergiversation of his conduct, the Jeypoor chief had managed to get himself excluded from the pale of British protection, he was left to his own resources, which, being quite inadequate to the defence of his dominions, they suffered the most merciless and unceasing ravages, aggravated by an interminable war of factions at court, and changes of administration. But, notwithstanding the misery of its condition, this state in 1818 was the last to send negociators to Delhi, and was ultimately the most difficult to settle with. At length, after much indecision, evasion, and procrastination, a treaty was signed on the 2d of April, 1818, when the tribute for the first year was fixed at 4 lacks of rupees; the second 5; the third 6; 7 and 8 lacks for the next three years, and eight lacks ever after: besides 5-16ths on any excess in the revenues beyond 40 lacks per annum.

The Jeypoor territory is large, and under proper management may be expected to yield 80 lacks of rupees per annum; but to restore order proved a task of no small difficulty, not a little aggravated by the folly of the Raja, and the profligacy of his favourites. Such was the condition of the Jeypoor court when visited by Sir David Ochterlony in May, 1818, on which occasion three menial servants (one a eunuch) were presented to him by the Raja as the members of his cabinet, and the conductors of all affairs, foreign and domestic. A convention of the principal thakoors was attempted, but many, presuming on the strength of their fortresses, opposed the arrangements; in consequence of which it became necessary to reduce Khooshalghur and Madharajpoor; nor can the settlement be said to be yet completed. The Raja, mentioned above, died in December, 1818, and the succession is now disputed by Maùsingh, a posthumous and, it is alleged, spurious son of the late Raja's uncle, and a distant relation of the Narwar branch, hastily placed on the throne by Mahur Ram,

the eunuch already alluded to. On this important subject all parties look to the British government for a decision; and one of the first blessings to Jeypoor resulting from the connexion, will be the establishment of a regular line of succession, a point hitherto settled by the issue of a destructive civil war.—*(Broughton, Metçalfe, Prinsep, G. Thomas, Rennell, Hunter, &c. &c, &c.)*

JEYPOOR *(Jayapura)*.—The capital of the preceding principality, is situated about 150 miles S. S. W. from Delhi, in lat. 26° 55′ N. long. 75° 37′ E. This city is of modern date, having been founded by Raja Jeysingh, in the reign of Mahommed Shah, which circumstance had the effect, not uncommon in Hindostan, of changing the name of the province to that of the capital. The prior metropolis was the city of Amber. At that period the city of Jeypoor was in a high state of improvement and the seat of science, Raja Jeysingh, being a great encourager of learning, and the founder of several observatories for astronomical researches.

The town of Jeypoor is handsome, and reckoned one of the most regularly built in Hindostan. The houses are of stone, and the streets, which are large and spacious, intersect each other at right angles. A citadel which commands the town is built on a steep rock, and around it a chain of fortification extends four miles in circumference. This place is the great mart for horses from Persia and the northern provinces of Hindostan. The present Raja possesses the city, but externally his dominion fluctuates incessantly, one time extending to a distance of above 200 miles, and again in a short space circumscribed within the walls of his capital. A considerable part of his territory is usurped by feudatories too powerful to subdue, and another portion has been so regularly visited by the Maharatta plunderers, as to yield him little or no annual revenue. The city itself is probably well calculated for resistance against native armies, as it has withstood many a siege and baffled the besiegers.

In A. D. 1798, after the treacherous massacre of Mr. Cherry and the other English gentlemen at Benares, Vizier Ali fled to Jeypoor, intending eventually to seek a refuge with the sovereign of Cabul. The Marquis Wellesley being anxious to bring the assassin to punishment, dispatched Colonel Collins as embassador to the reigning Raja, Pertaub Singh, to procure his surrender; to accomplish which purpose he authorized him to expend to the amount of three lacks of rupees. A long negociation ensued, in the course of which the Raja expressed great real or affected reluctance to infringe the rights of hospitality, even towards so great a villain; but the spirited remonstrances of the embassador, backed by the seasonable distribution of the money, effected his capture, under the stipulations that he should neither be put to death nor confined in chains. He was in consequence confined in a species of cage, open on two

sides, erected in one of the bomb proofs of the ramparts of Fort William, where he remained until death released him in 1817. In 1819, his place was supplied by the noted Trimbuckjee Dainglia. During the campaign of 1817, this city was approached by the army under Sir David Ochterlony, but no European was allowed to enter the gates, through which, however, they were permitted to look as far as they could. From these points of vision the streets appeared wide and the houses of stone, the whole presenting an appearance of grandeur surpassing the generality of Indian cities.—*(Hunter, Broughton, MSS. &c. &c. &c.)*

Travelling distance from Agra, 136 miles; from Delhi, 156; from Oujein, 285; from Bombay, 740 miles; and from Calcutta, 975 miles.

AMBER *(or Ambeer)*.—The ancient capital of the Jeypoor territories, until Mirza Raja Jeysingh, in the reign of Aurengzebe, built a new city named Jeypoor, since which period the Rajaship has taken that name also. It stands in lat. 26° 57′ N. long. 75° 40′ E. about five miles N. by E. from Jeypoor. The state of Amber, now Jeypoor, or Jyenagur, is said to have existed for the space of 1100 years. Jeysingh succeeded to the ancient inheritance of the Raja of Amber, in the year of Vicramaditya, 1750, corresponding to A. D. 1693. His mind was early stored with the knowledge contained in the Hindoo Shastras; but he appears peculiarly to have attached himself to the mathematical sciences, and his reputation was so great that he was chosen by the Emperor Mahommed Shah to reform the calendar. He finished his tables A. D. 1728.—*(Hunter, Franklin, &c.)*

SAMBER *(Sambhara, a store)*.—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about 51 miles N. N. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 53′ N. long. 74° 57′ E. To the north-east of this town is a salt lake 20 miles long by 1½ broad, from whence a considerable part of Upper Hindostan is supplied with salt, and from whence during the Mogul government it was carried as far as Benares and Bahar.

The Samber salt is collected on the shore of the lake, towards the close of the hot season, without previously undergoing any artificial process. It is then spread out and exposed to the sun for ten or fifteen days, in which space of time it hardens, and forms large lumps, which are gathered into heaps. On these heaps a quantity of dry grass is placed and set fire to, which calcines the external particles, and makes an external covering sufficient to withstand the rain. In this state it is sold, and reaches the different markets broken into small pieces from the jolting of the carriages.—*(J. Grant, J. T. Brown, &c.)*

CHATSOO.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 22 miles S. S. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 26° 38′ N. long. 75° 47′ E.

JOLYA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 42 miles S. S. E. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 21′ N. long. 75° 50′ E.

LALSOONT.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 40 miles S. E. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 33′ N. long. 76° 9′ E.

BAGAROO.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 18 miles S. W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 49′ N. long. 75° 22′ E.

NEWAHY.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 37 miles S. by E. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 33′ N. long. 75° 44′ E.

MADHARAJPOOR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 24 miles S. S. E. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 35′ N. long. 75° 30′ E. In 1818, this place was occupied by a refractory feudatory of the Raja of Jeypoor, to whose assistance a British detachment was sent, under Colonel Thompson, which took it by assault, with the loss of 4 killed and 10 wounded. It had previously resisted Ameer Khan for nearly a whole year.

RANTAMPOOR *(Ranotampura)*.—A city and strong fortress in the province of Ajmeer, in the centre of the Arrabarree hills, 75 miles S. E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 26° N.. long. 76° 18′ E.

BARWARRAH.—A mud fort with round bastions and a ditch, ten miles west of Rantampoor. Lat. 26° 3′ N. long. 75° 3′ E.

BHAGWUNTGUR.—A Rajpoot village in the province of Ajmeer, 16 miles N. W. from Rantampoor. Lat. 26° 10′ N. long. 76° 5′ E.

CANDHAR *(Gandhara)*.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 12 miles E. from Rantampoor. Lat. 26° N. long. 76° 29′ E.

MALPOORA.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 48 miles S. S. W. from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 26° 20′ N. long. 75° 12′ E.

TONK.—A Rajpoot town in the province of Ajmeer, which has been for many years past an appendage of the Holcar family. It stands in lat. 26° 12′ N. long. 75° 38′ E. and about 50 miles S. from Jeypoor. In 1804, when Tonk, Rampoora, and the lands attached, were conquered from Jeswunt Row Holcar by Lord Lake, they were estimated to yield three and a half lacks of rupees annual revenue. The whole were restored at the pacification in 1805, and in 1818, after the battle of Maheidpoor, were ceded to the British government.—*(Metcalfe, &c. &c.)*

RAMPOORA.—A large walled town situated close under a range of steep hills, 70 miles S. by E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 25° 58′ N. long. 75° 57′ E. This is a place of considerable extent and population, which in 1804 was taken by assault by a detachment under the command of Colonel Don. In January, 1818, a division of infantry, under Roshun Beg and Roshun Khan, which had belonged to

Holcar's army, and continued refractory after the battle of Maheidpoor, was attacked here by the army under General Brown, and nearly destroyed, although the two Roshuns escaped. In order to consolidate the possessions of Ghufoor Khan, Rampoora was subsequently conferred on him, and it is also in contemplation to bestow a jaghire on his son.

KAKORA.—A large town with a castle in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Raja of Ooniara, situated 10 miles N. W. from Rampoora. Lat. 26° 1′ N long. 75° 48′ E.

OONIARA.—This is a large town enclosed by a wall, partly of mud and partly of stone. The Raja has a handsome house, within a stone enclosure, surrounded by a ditch. He is a feudatory of Jeypoor, and sprung from that family, but has long acted as an independent prince. Lat. 25° 51′ N. long. 75° 52′ E. 8 miles S. W. of Rampoora.

DUBLANA.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 90 miles south from the city of Jeypoor. Lat. 25° 38′ N. long. 75° 30′ E.

INDERGHUR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 28 miles S. by W. from Rantampoor. Lat. 25° 39′ N. long. 76° 5′ E.

LATIKERY.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 32 miles S. by W. from Rantampoor. Lat. 25° 36′ N. long. 76° 5′ E.

SHEOPOOR *(Sivapura)*.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 104 miles S. E. from Jeypoor. Lat. 25° 41′ N. long. 76° 33′ E. This is the capital of a small principality possessed by a relation of the Jepoor Raja's.

HAROWTY *(Haravati)*.—A large district in the Ajmeer province, situated principally between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. Near the village of Mackundra, lat. 24° 18′ N. long. 76° 12′ E. is a ridge of mountains, which extends to the east and the west, dividing the province of Malwah from the district of Harowty or country of the tribe Hara. The chief towns are Kotah and Boondee, and the Chumbul the principal river by which this territory is intersected. The chiefs of Boondee and Kotah are of the Chohan tribe, and are denominated half Rajpoots. The cultivators are Rajpoots, Jauts, Brahmins, Bheels, and other castes. Of the words of the Lord's prayer in the Harowty language, 22 could be identified as the same with those of the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

KOTAH *(Cata, the fort)*.—This town is situated on the east side of the Chumbul river, 150 miles S. E. from the city of Ajmeer. Lat. 25° 12′ N. long. 75° 45′ E. Kotah is of considerable extent, and of an irregular oblong form, enclosed by a stone wall with round bastions, within which are many good stone house, besides several handsome public buildings. To the west it has the river Chumbul; and

on the north-west a clear lake, which on two sides is banked with stone, and in the centre has a building called Jugmundul, consecrated to religious purposes.

The territories of this petty state extend along the east bank of the Chumbul river, and were bounded on the south by the intermixed possessions of Sindia and Holcar, and on the north and north-west by those of Jeypoor and Boondee. At present, including the cessions received from the British government, this native state possesses a compact and well defined territory, equal to an area of 5500 square miles. Formerly Kotah was a component portion of the Boondee principality, but by the assistance of the Jeypoor Raja became independent, and its territories were subsequently increased by acquisitions from the neighbouring chiefs of Kerowly and Shapoor. The dominions of Kotah are situated on the high road from Hindostan to the Deccan, and comprehend the Muckundra pass; the revenue in 1805 was estimated at 25 lacks of rupees per annum. About 30 years ago the legitimate Raja of the the Hara tribe was placed in confinement by Zalim Singh, who usurped the management of affairs and appointed himself regent, treating the Raja, however, with an external show of submissive respect. Zalim Singh has maintained possession of his self-appointed dignity ever since, and has upon the whole conducted affairs in most eventful times with considerable energy and success. Indeed a part of his territories within the limits of Mewar, inhabited by the savage Meenas, could scarcely be kept in order, except by the severe and unrelenting policy which he has exercised. In 1806, he put a stop to the barbarous practice which had before existed of kidnapping children from the Kotah territories for the purpose of selling them as slaves at Delhi. In 1818, a treaty of alliance which had been for some time negotiating was ratified by the Marquis of Hastings, and presented in full court by Captain Tod, the British envoy. There was a peculiarity in the engagement with this chief characteristic of the Rajpoot tribe. The legitimate Raja of Kotah is still living, but Zalim Singh has long held him in strict surveillance within the fortress of Gangroon; yet when the British government was prepared to conclude engagements direct with Zalim Singh, as existing occupant, without reference to the lawful chief, and to have guaranteed the succession to his heirs, he rejected the proposal, and requested the treaty might be made with Raja Kishore Singh, to whom and his heirs the throne is guaranteed, but with reservation of perpetual administration to Zalim Singh, and his heirs for ever, under the title of Dewan. Zalim Singh stood up to receive it, and presented a nuzzer, or offering of 101 gold mohurs, on the part of his nominal master the Raja; and 21 from himself. Salutes were then fired from the ramparts of Kotah, Gangroon and Shahabad, and much bustle ensued, the whole court and camp appearing to sympathize with the ancient

politician. Since that period, in consequence of the additional territories conferred on him by the British government, he ranks as one of the principal powers, (if powers they may be called) of Hindostan.—*(Hunter, Tod, Broughton, Prinsep, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

RAUJGHUR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 25 miles E. by S. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 9′ N. long. 76° 7′ E.

KEYTONE.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 11 miles E. by S. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 11′ N. long. 75° 54′ E.

GUNGAILEO.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, 7 miles N. by E. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 17′ N. long. 75° 47′ E.

SEYSUNNAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 24 miles S. from Kotah. Lat. 24° 52′ N. long. 75° 37′ E.

BOONDEE *(Bundi)*.—A principality of Rajpootana, situated towards the south-eastern extremity in the Harowty district. The Boondee Raja is of the Hara tribe, and was formerly a power of importance; but by the loss of the greater part of his territories, which were formed into the distinct government of Kotah, under one of the Raja's family, his revenue was greatly reduced, and consequence in proportion. Prior to 1818 his territories were bounded on the south and east by the Chumbul; on the west the pergunnah of Jehajghur, a dependency of Kotah; and on the north by certain sub-divisions of Jeypoor, and the partially independent state of Ooniara. The whole of these territories, in peaceable times, were reckoned capable of yielding six lacks of rupees per annum; but at that date more than one half were in the hands of Sindia and Holcar, who generally leased their shares for a small sum of annual revenue to a farmer, who endeavoured to extort the most he could from the cultivators during the existence of his temporary authority. In 1817, the total revenue realized by the Raja amounted only to 60,000 rupees per annum; and about one lack more was derived by his relations and military retainers from the lands they held in jaghire of the government. Sindia seldom received above 65,000 rupees, although the nominal rent was 80,000. Owing to these causes, the Boondee peasantry were greatly impoverished by the variety of oppressions they experienced, while the government was sunk in apathy and despair, suffering poverty, ignominy, and distress, in a great measure brought on by the services which the Raja, in 1804, had rendered Colonel Monson and his army during their disastrous retreat, in return for which, at the pacification of 1805, he was abandoned by the British government to the tender mercies of the Maharattas.

But, although late, his reward at length came, for by the arrangements of 1818, he has been wholly freed from foreign intruders, and received besides a considerable addition of territory, to enable him to rank as an efficient member of the

general federation of Hindostan, under the protection of the British government. When this powerful interference relieved the Raja from the bondage under which he had so long groaned, he felt as if uncaged after a long imprisonment, and was quite at a loss what use to make of his liberty. His subjects also, who had probably experienced more oppression than perhaps any others, except those of Odeypoor, were equally rejoiced at their emancipation. All Holcar's acquisitions from the Raja were recovered for him, as were also Sindia's possessions within the Raja's limits, and lastly the town of Patun, an ancient domain for which he expressed a strong desire, was acquired for him by compromise with Holcar, but Sindia still holds his share.—*(Tod, Sir John Malcolm, Hunter, &c. &c. &c.)*

BOONDEE.—The town of Boondee is situated in lat. 25° 28′ N. long. 75° 30′ E. It stands on the southern declivity of a long range of hills, which runs nearly from east to west. The palace of the Raja, a large massy stone building, is about half way up the hill, and a kind of fortification extends to the top. The neighbouring hills are inhabited by Meenas, an uncontroulable race, who are either cultivators or robbers, according as the seized is adapted for either profession. Although of small extent, and hitherto yielding but little revenue, the dominions of this petty state are of importance, as commanding Lackree and Boondee, the principal passes from the south into Upper Hindostan. The last is also the road from Agra. At present the Boondee Raja's territories occupy an area equal to about 2500 square miles, and are compact and well defined.—*(Hunter, Sir John Malcolm, &c. &c.)*

PATUN.—This place stands on the north bank of the Chumbul, within two two days march E. S. E. from Boondee. Lat. 25° 20′ N. long. 75° 50′ E. In 1817 Patan was comparatively flourishing in the midst of ruin, owing to the excellent management of Lallajee Bellal. Being a considerable commercial mart, in old times the imposts yielded a lack of rupees per annum to the revenue.—*(Captain Tod, &c.)*

SAGANEER.—A small town in the province of Ajmeer, not far from Shapoorah, surrounded by a stone wall, and belonging to the Raja of Kotah. The plundering hordes which have so long infested this part of the province, have reduced it to a state of great desolation, little else being at present seen but the sites of ruined and deserted villages. The nature of the soil is also such as to require the constant assistance of man, for although fine spots of country are occasionally seen, its general character is the reverse, presenting on the surface extensive tracts of sterile sand, and masses of barren mica.

SHAPOORAH.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about 70 miles

S. S. E. from the city of that name. Viewed from the outside, Shapoorah has the appearance of strength and importance, but within it presents a scene of poverty and decay.

GUNGAPOOR.—This is a large place on the road from Kotah to Odeypoor. Gunga Bhye, the wife of Madhajee Sindia, lies buried here, and an establishment is kept up at the temple, for the support of which some villages were formerly assigned, but the revenues they yielded have been gradually diverted to other purposes. In 1818, the only cultivation seen was confined to spots in the immediate vicinity of the villages, all the rest remaining waste, owing to the disorderly condition of the country.—*(Tod, &c.)*

JAJGHUR.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, which was wrested from the Rana of Odeypoor, by Zalim Singh of Kotah, about the year 1803. The surrounding district comprehends 84 towns and villages, 22 of which are exclusively inhabited by Meenas, who pay only personal service to the government they live under.

BHILARAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 47 miles N. E. from the city of Odeypoor. Lat. 25° 26′ N. long. 74° 47′ E. This place presents the appearance of former opulence and industry; but at present, owing to the anarchy so long prevalent throughout Rajpootana, is nearly roofless and depopulated.

ODEYPOOR *(Udayapura)*.

A Rajpoot principality of the highest rank in the province of Ajmeer, of which it occupies the southern extremity, and situated principally between the 24th and 26th degrees of north latitude. A considerable portion of the Odeypoor territory had anciently the appellation of Mewar, or Meywar, and its chief is frequently styled in history the Rana of Chitore. It is difficult to define the real extent of the Odeypoor territories, owing to their incessant fluctuation, but they may be considered generally as comprehending the districts of Chitore and Mewar. Under this point of view they are bounded on the north by the Joudpoor territories; on the south by many native principalities in the provinces of Gujerat and Malwah; to the east are the territories of Kotah, Boondee, and Sindia; and on the west the large district of Sarowy, nominally subject to Joudpoor. In 1818, their total area might be estimated at 7,300 square miles of turbulent and ill subdued territory.

The surface of Odeypoor is rather hilly than mountainous, and possessing many streams and rivulets, independent of the periodical rains, it produces when properly cultivated, sugar, indigo, tobacco, wheat, rice, and barley; there are also iron mines, and abundance of fuel. Thirty miles north of the city of Odeypoor, sulphur is found; but of a quality inferior to that which is procured from Surat. The country is naturally strong and the paths wild and intricate. In

1818, Cheetoo the Pindary, baffled every effort to overtake him in his escape from Jawud in Rajpootana, which he effected by penetrating through a most difficult country to the south of the Mewar district, coming out by Dhar to the south-west of Oujein, where there is a very high range of hills, whence issue the streams that afterwards form the Mahy river. The city of Odeypoor, which is situated within an amphitheatré of hills, is guarded in the approach by a deep and dangerous defile, which admits only of a single carriage passing at a time; yet so extensive is the circuit protected by this pass, that it is said at one time to have comprehended between 4 and 500 villages within its range. The cultivators are composed of Rajpoots, Jauts, Brahmins, Bheels, and Meenas, and nearly the whole are of the Brahminical persuasion. Their language is of Sanscrit origin, and the Lord's prayer, when translated into it by the missionaries, was found to contain 28 of the roots found either in the Bengalese or Hindostany specimens.

The Rana of Odeypoor is of the Sesodya tribe, and is considered as the most noble of the Rajpoot chiefs, but has long been much inferior in temporal power to the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor. He is also much revered by the Mahommedans, in consequence of a tradition that he is descended in the female line from Noushirvan the Just, who was sovereign of Persia at the birth of Mahommed, and thus to have a common origin with the Seids, descended from Hossein the son of Ali. In 1807, the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor contended for the honour of marrying the Rana of Odeypoor's daughter, and each supported his pretensions by the sword, thereby originating a war which brought many woes on Rajpootana, nor is it yet ascertained which was the successful candidate.

The nobility of the country are Rajpoots (Rajaputras), called Rhatores in the vulgar tongue. They are of the Sesodya tribe, which is esteemed the purest and most elevated in rank. The lands are mostly held on the feudal tenure; but in the late distracted state of the Rana's dominions, the government dues were rarely paid except when levied by force, and the feudatories as rarely obeyed his summons to appear at court. Madhajee Sindia, by repeated invasions, threw the country and government into confusion, and dissolved the attachment of the inferior chiefs, so that the revenue of the Rana in 1805 had dwindled down to eight lacks of rupees, while the separated chieftains established petty states, such as Shahpoorah, Sherghur and others, claiming independence. This, however, was not the worst that the Rana was doomed to suffer, for under the Maharatta sway, which he had so long experienced, his poverty became so great, that in 1818 no money whatever remained in the Odeypoor treasury, and the prince himself disbursed the small sums necessary for his dinner expenses.

Besides others of his lands occupied by desultory and predatory bands, the

usurpations of recent years, the following had been assigned to the Sindia and Holcar families, viz.

In Jeswunt Row Bhow's hands	1,100,000 rupees.
In Bapoo Sindia's ditto	185,000
Ruttunghur, &c.	300,000
Total lands held by Sindia	1,585,000
Ditto by Holcar	1,475,000

To these might be added the respective shares of Bapoo Sindia and Delil Khan, each three lacks and a half annually, being the aggregate tribute of the collective body of feudal chiefs, settled long ago at a meeting of Bapoo Sindia, Jumsheed Khan, and their officers, with the chiefs of Mewar and the Rana's functionaries, near the city of Odeypoor; which convention was intended for ever to suppress all predatory extortions in the province. The most sacred oaths were exchanged; Bapoo swore on the Ganges, and Jumsheed on the Koran: but the ink was scarcely dry, and a few instalments paid, when the old scenes recommenced with increased violence and barbarity, while Jumsheed bestowed the most opprobrious epithets on the Rana within the precincts of his own palace.

From this most horrible bondage the Rana of Odeypoor was rescued by the British government, and a treaty concluded, by the conditions of which it was to receive one-fourth of the revenue realized for the first five years, and three-eighths ever after; the last proportion to be also received from any acquisitions recovered for the Raja. After this his prospects brightened, and the chiefs and nobles, his former feudatories, daily repaired to offer him their obeisance. But his poverty still continued, and the consequence was, that inferior officers were detached with bodies of troops to manage forts and pergunnahs, without any provision for their expenses, and it mattered little to the scanty population of his dominions, whether the rod were used by the Rana's own rapacious officers, or by the miscreants who had been expelled by the interference of the British government. In January, 1818, General Donkin describes the country as equalling in richness any space in India that he had seen, with the exception of the tracts round Tonk Rampoora; but that the first cultivation of any extent that had been met with since he entered this desolated province was immediately adjoining the fortress of Sanganeer, half a mile from which the land still remained an unproductive waste. Unfortunately the Rana's personal character was little adapted to the existing emergency, having (besides his habitual indolence) had his mental faculties injured by his long and hopeless depression, while no confidential advisers remained whose talents were ade-

quate to the crisis. One of the most ruinous courses pursued by the Rana was the lavish and indiscriminate grants of land, bestowed for various purposes, through favour or faction.

The British government felt a natural anxiety to restore the prosperity and regenerate, if practicable, the decayed institutions and misapplied resources of this ancient state; but any systematic interference with the Rana's internal management is equally precluded by the conditions of the treaty and considerations of general policy. Under these circumstances the appointment of a minister of capacity and integrity, disposed to act in concert with the British government for the good of his prince and country, would be the most advantageous arrangement, but even this is rendered hopeless by the absence of talent, experience, and influence, among those whose birth and station would have otherwise rendered them conspicuous. Notwithstanding these untoward obstacles, some amelioration has taken place, and in 1818, the Rana's court, when visited by Captain Tod, was found respectably attended by various chiefs who had not been there for many years, and by some who had never been there at all. Hopes were also entertained that the whole would attend, and yield up the crown lands they had usurped, without any direct interference on the part of the British government, now that the barrier which had so long separated them from their sovereign, and retained both in thraldom, was removed.—*(Public MS. Documents, Tod, George Thomas, Broughton, Wilford, &c. &c.)*

ODEYPOOR.—This town is situated a few miles to the west of the Banass river in lat. 24° 58′ N. long. 74° 14′ E. It stands within an amphitheatre of hills, which has but one road that admits of a carriage, but there are two other passes through which single horses can go. The wells in the neighbourhood, although but a small distance from the surface of the earth, are strongly impregnated with mineral particles, which flow with the water from the hills. The town has long been declining along with its sovereign, but in 1818, on his emancipation from the yoke of the Maharattas, it received an immediate accession of several thousand inhabitants.—*(George Thomas, &c. &c.)*

MEWAR.—A Rajpoot district in the province of Ajmeer, of which the modern capital is Odeypoor, situated principally between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "Meywar contains 10,000 villages, and the whole circar of Chitore is dependent on it. It is 40 coss long and 30 broad, and has three very considerable forts, viz. Chitore, Coombhere, and Mandel. In Chowra is an iron mine, and in Jainpoor, and some places dependent on Mandel, are copper mines." In modern times the Mewar district is of more limited extent, and has been but very imperfectly explored.

GANORAH.—This town is the capital of the tract in the province of Ajmeer, named Godwar, and three reigns back belonged to the Rana of Odeypoor. Its geographical situation is unascertained.

JALORE.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 33 miles south from Odeypoor. Lat. 24° 30′ N. long. 74° 25′ E.

NATHDORA *(Natha Devara, the Temple of God)*.—A town in the province of Ajmeer, situated about 24 miles N. from the city of Odeypoor. Here is a celebrated Hindoo temple of great sanctity, having many villages appropriated, which are considered sacred by the contending Rajpoot and Maharatta armies. The Gossains (Hindoo devotees) carry on a considerable trade with Gujerat and Tatta, and also with the rest of Rajpootana and Upper Hindostan.—*(Broughton, 6th Register, &c.)*

CHITORE *(Chaitur)*.—A Rajpoot district in the province of Ajmeer, and nominally subject to the Rana of Odeypoor, who is named indiscriminately the Rana of Chitore, Mewar, and Odeypoor. The latter town in modern times having become the capital has rendered obsolete the other appellations. By Abul Fazel in 1582, this district is described as follows: "Circar Chitore, containing 26 mahals; measurement 1,678,802 begahs; revenue 30,047,469 dams; seyurghal 360,737 dams. This circar furnishes 22,000 cavalry, and 82,000 infantry." At present the chief towns are Chitore, Jalore, and Bampoora; the Chumbul is the principal river.

The town of Chitore was for several centuries the capital of a powerful Rajpoot principality, and much celebrated for its strength, riches and antiquity when taken and despoiled by Acber in 1567. The fortress of Chitore is situated on the top of a high and rugged mountain, about eight miles in circumference, and is considered a place of great strength. It was first conquered by the Mahommedans, A. D. 1303, during the reign of Allah ud Deen, the scourge of the Hindoos. It was subsequently taken by Acber, and, in 1680, again subdued and plundered by Azim Ushaun, the son of Aurengzebe; permanent possession of the fortress does not, therefore, appear to have been retained by the Patan or Mogul emperors. In 1790, it was taken by Madhajee Sindia, from Bheem Singh, a rebellious subject of the Odeypoor Raja, to whom it was restored in conformity to a previous agreement. In 1818, it was seen by the detachment which was conducting the ex-Peshwa Bajerow towards Benares. It then appeared strong by nature, and had been made so by art; but the works on the table land having been long neglected were much decayed: while the surrounding country, although naturally fertile, was in a very miserable condition.—*(Rennell, Hunter, Maurice, &c. &c.)*

DHABUR LAKE.—This lake is situated in a wild hilly country at the southern

extremity of the Ajmeer province, about lat. 23° 15′ N. long. 73° 50′ W. By the natives it is said to be the source of the Saubermutty river, which flows past Ahmedabad and falls into the gulf of Cambay; but as it is placed in one of the least explored portions of Hindostan, nothing positive respecting it can be affirmed.

KUMULNERE.—This is one of the strongest forts of upper Hindostan, and particularly the one in which the Pindaries were desirous of depositing their families and baggage during the campaign of 1817-18. Along with Rypoor and Rajnagur it had been recently usurped from Odeypoor by Sindia, and his commander, Jeswunt Row Bhow, but after their recapture they were restored to the Rana.

In February, 1818, Sir John Malcolm demanded from Jeswunt Row Bhow the surrender of the forts of Bealghur, and Kumulnere. The first was surrendered to General Donkin before the order for its delivery was received; but the last being occupied by refractory Patans from Holcar's army, its surrender was procrastinated for some time, but at last effected without bloodshed. The whole of this portion of Mewar had been for some time subject to the depredations of Duleel Khan, who resided at Nembekarah (a jaghire belonging to Ameer Khan's family), and for eight years had laid the neighbouring country under contribution. This chief being offered service by General Malcolm, accepted it, and joined him with a party of excellent horse, which had the beneficial effect of giving confidence to the inhabitants, who through fear of these marauders had deserted their villages, &c.—*(Sir John Malcolm, &c.)*

RUTTUNGHUR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 25 miles E. by S. from the city of Odeypoor. Lat. 24° 51′ N. long. 75° 6′ E.

SALANGHUR.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 30 miles S. from Chitore. Lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 74° 47′ E.

JAWUD.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 50 miles S. E. from Odeypoor. Lat. 24° 36′ N. long. 74° 55′ E. At the commencement of the Pindary campaign, this place was possessed by Jeswunt Row Bhow, one of Sindia's principal commanders, who being convicted of harbouring the Pindaries and of other acts of contumacy, Jawud was stormed by the troops under General Brown, on the 28th January, 1818, with little loss on the part of the assailants. The pergunnah of Jawud, agreeably to the conditions of the treaty entered into with Sindia, was at first seized and appropriated by the British government, but afterwards restored to him.

SAROWY *(Serowi)*.

A large district which occupies the south-western division of the Ajmeer province, and situated between the 24th and 26th degrees of north lati-

tude. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Sarowy, containing six mahals; revenue 42,077,437 dams. This circar furnishes 8000 cavalry and 38,000 infantry." To the north, the modern limits of this district disappear in the great desert; on the south is the province of Gujerat; to the east Mewar and Chitore; and on the west the channel of the Banass river, and the dominions of the Ameers of Sinde. The eastern quarter is wavy and hilly, but more productive than the western, which gradually merges into the desert, and is almost destitute of water, which can only be procured in scanty quantities from very deep wells. This local peculiarity, added to the internal dissentions and predatory habits of the native chiefs, keeps the country in a very backward state of cultivation, and checks the increase of inhabitants, who are thinly scattered over extensive tracts of jungle and sand. From Abul Fazel's description, it would appear from the amount of revenue it yielded and the quota of troops assigned, that it must have existed in a more flourishing state than it at present exhibits. The chief river is the Banass, but its waters are either abstracted for the purposes of irrigation, or absorbed in the sands; for no current of any description reaches the sea. This territory is occupied by many petty Rajpoot chiefs, most of whom have occasionally paid tribute to the Odeypoor or Joudpoor sovereignties.

SAROWY *(Sarui)*.—The capital of the above district, but now a place of little note. It stands about 62 miles west from Odeypoor, in lat. 24° 52′ N. long. 73° 15′ E. The Sarowy Raja's family is a branch of that of Pertaubghur Deolah, and thence called Deolah Rajpoots. They are Sesodyas of the Rana of Odeypoor's own line, yet may be described as independent both of that state and of Odeypoor, having never paid tribute to either but when extorted by the edge of the sword.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

PERTAUBGHUR DEOLAH.—A town and district in the province of Ajmeer. Lat. ° ′ N. long. ° ′ E. During an investigation that took place in 1818, it appeared clearly established, that Pertaubghur Deolah had been long exempted from any feudatory or tributary obligations towards the Rana of Odeypoor, so that the re-establishment of the latter's authority over this petty state was not desirable, nor practicable without manifest injustice. On the other hand it appeared perfectly clear, that unless Pertaubghur were controuled by some more powerful state, it would become a nursery of turbulent and predatory characters, and a source of alarm to the neighbouring principalities: under these circumstances, the arrangement best suited to the emergency appeared to be, for the British government to collect the tribute, extending at the same time the benefits of its protection to Pertaubghur, on the same conditions as had been granted to the other Rajpoot states. The principal objection was

its local position, which would render an increase of force necessary.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

ABOO.—This place is a dependency of the Sarowy Raja's, but generally possessed by some rebellious relation. Lat. 24° 36′ N. long. 73° 25′ E. 56 miles W. by S. from Odeypoor.

MELAH.—A town in the Ajmeer province, 70 miles W. N. W. from Odeypoor. Lat. 25° 15′ N. long. 73° 12′ E.

AMERKOTE *(Amara cata, the Fort of the Immortals)*.—This town is situated on the confines of Sinde, about 85 miles east of the Indus and of Hyderabad, the capital of that province. Lat. 25° 20′ N. long. 69° 49′ E.

Amerkote was formerly an independent principality, held by the Jada Rajpoots, but being placed on the borders of Joudpoor and Sinde, soon became an object of contention between these two states. The surrounding country is so arid and sterile, that Amerkote does not now raise sufficient land revenue to support a small local military corps, although standing in the vicinity of many martial and predatory tribes. Taxes on travellers and merchandise are the only sources from which any revenue is procurable, there being scarcely any agriculture. In the neighbourhood of Amercote, a principal fortress belonging to Meer Gholaum Ali, the chief Ameer of Sinde, is situated, in which his treasures are supposed to be deposited. It is said to be situated on a hill in the desert, containing excellent wells, within four stages of which no water is to be found.

The Emperor Humayoon after his expulsion from Hindostan by Shere Shah, the Afghan, in his extreme distress fled to the Raja of Amerkote in the desert, and was hospitably received; and here the Emperor Acber was born A.D. 1541. In recent times its possession has been disputed by the Raja of Joudpoor and the Ameers of Sinde; in 1809, the first had had a garrison in it for some years; but in 1813, according to the most authentic accounts from this quarter, it was taken from him by the Ameers of Sinde, in whose possession it probably remains.—*(Macmurdo, Pottinger, Maurice, MSS. &c.)*

SANJORE *(Sanjara)*.—Named also Sachore, is situated at the south-western extremity of the Ajmeer province, about 140 miles N. E. from the Gulf of Cutch. Lat. 24° 40′ N. long. 71° 38′ E. The road betwixt this town and Theraud on the north-western frontier of the Gujerat province is infested by predatory Baloochy banditti, of the Kosah tribe, who render the road impassable without a strong escort. This tract of country is under no general controul or government, every village having a separate chief who plunders wherever he hopes to meet with impunity. In 1809, the town of Sanjore was subject to the Raja of Joudpoor, and garrisoned by a detachment of his troops.

THE PROVINCE OF MOOLTAN.

(MULTAN.)

In its greatest dimensions this province extends from the sea to Lahore, and formerly comprehended the country on both sides of the Indus, between the 24th and 30th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Lahore; on the south by the Indian Ocean; to the east it has the great desert of Ajmeer, or Rajpootana; and on the west the course of the Indus separates it from Baloochistan and the Cabul dominions. When Abul Fazel composed the institutes of Acber, Mooltan was one of the largest provinces of the empire, extending to the frontiers of Persia, and including within its limits the modern countries of Mooltan, Baloochistan, Sinde, Shekarpoor, Sewistan, and Tatta, besides a portion of the Doabs now attached to Lahore. Since that period its limits have been so contracted, that the extent of territory exclusively assigned to the name does not exceed 110 miles in length by 70 in breadth. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows:—

"The soubah of Mooltan lies in the first, second, and third climates. Before that Tatta was comprised in this Soubah, it measured in length from Ferozepoor to Sewistan 403 coss, and was in breadth from Khutpoor to Jesselmere, 108 coss; but with the additional length of Tatta, it measures to Cutch and Meckran, 660 coss. On the east lies circar Sirhind; the pergunnah of Jhoor joins it on the north; on the south it is bounded by the province of Ajmeer; and on the west are situated Cutch and Mekraun; both of which are independent territories. The six rivers described in Lahore pass through this soubah. The river Behut, near the pergunnah of Shoor, unites with the Chinaub; and then, after running together 27 coss, they disembogue themselves into the river Sinde, near Ooch. For the distance of 12 coss near Ferozepoor, the rivers Beyah and Sutuleje unite; and then again, as they pass along, separate into four streams; viz. the Hur, the Haray, the Dund, and the Noorny; and near the city of Mooltan these four branches join again. All the rivers that disembogue themselves into the Sinde (Indus) take its name, but in Tatta the Sinde is called Mehran.

"The mountains of this soubah lie on the north side. In many respects it

resembles Lahore, except that but little rain falls here, and the heat is excessive. Between Sewee and Bekhar (Backar) is a large desert, over which, during the summer months, there blows the pernicious hot wind called the Simoom. The river Sinde some years inclines to the north, and sometimes to the south; and the villages change accordingly. This soubah contains 3 circars, divided into 8 pergunnahs. The measured lands are 3,273,932 begahs; the revenue 151,403,619 dams, out of which 659,948 are seyurghal. It furnishes 13,785 cavalry, and 165,650 infantry." Such is Abul Fazel's delineation of this province during the reign of Acber, when it is probable it was but little known, as the detail is more than usually replete with geographical errors. The principal modern territorial and political subdivisions within the limits of Hindostan, are the following, commencing from the north:

1. Mooltan Proper.
2. Bahawulpoor.
3. Backar.
4. Sinde.
5. Tatta.
6. Chalchkaun.

As has been mentioned above, the greatest length of the territory now distinguished by the name Mooltan is 110 miles, by about 70, its greatest breadth; and it is comprehended between the Sutuleje (here named the Gurrah), the Ravey and the Chinaub. From the right bank of the Sutuleje, journeying from Bahawulpoor in a north easterly direction, after the first 5 miles, in the month of December, the country is arid, sandy, and destitute of grass, but scattered over with hardy bushes, which can withstand the parched and saline soil. In the immediate vicinity of the villages, which are numerous, fields of wheat, cotton, and corn, are to be seen, and also a great number of large and deep water courses. The north-west corner of the desert is cut off by the streams of the Punjab, and the tract thus formed within reach of the periodical inundation is fertile, while the rest is sandy and barren, and but very thinly inhabited. Of this character are the districts of Mooltan Proper, Bahawulpoor, and Leia, which are all situated to the south of the salt range of mountains, and east of the Indus. Besides its natural sterility this miserable country has suffered greatly from the incursions of the Seiks, Afghans, the Ameers of Sinde, and other depredators.

Anterior to the invasion of Hindostan by Mahmood of Ghizni, this province appears to have been possessed by the Mahommedans, as he is applauded by Persian authors for having, in A.D. 1006, subdued Daoud Khan, an Afghan heretic, who then occupied the country, and compelled him to embrace the true faith, from which, however, he soon after apostatized. It continued subject to the Patan and Mogul empires until the dissolution of the latter, after which it underwent many changes. It was taken from Mahommed Shah, the Delhi

Sovereign, by Nadi Shah, and on the death of that conqueror devolved to Ahmed Shah Abdalli of Cabul. For a short time before the battle of Paniput, it was in the hands of the Maharattas, but was then lost by these plunderers and never recovered. At a later period the Seiks held it for two years, and continued annually to extort pecuniary compensations for abstaining from plundering it. In 1809 the total revenue was estimated at 550,000 rupees, of which 250,000 were paid to the Cabul Sovereign, to whom the Mooltan Nabob is a feudatory. At that date the troops within the city of Mooltan were estimated at 2000 men, with 20 bad guns; but on an emergency it was supposed that 12,000 additional militia could be collected. Being remotely situated from the British territories, possessing no political or commercial importance, and being but little visited by Europeans, we are probably less acquainted with the interior of this than of any other of the original provinces of Hindostan. The existing government is, however, with respect to exactions, monopolies, and other abuses, known to be execrable, the oppressions of the civil department being aggravated by the extortions of rapacious and ungovernable troops within, and by the miseries of its political situation from without.—*(Abul Fazel, Elphinstone, Rennell, MSS. &c.)*

MOOLTAN *(Multan)*.—This city stands in lat. 30° 9′ N. long. 71° 7′ E. four miles from the left bank of the Chinaub or Ascesines, which has previously received the waters of the Ravey (Hydraotes) and the Jhylum (Hydaspes). It is enclosed by a fine wall from 40 to 50 feet high, with towers at regular distances. It has also a citadel on a rising ground, and several fine tombs, two of which are ornamented with painted and glazed tiles. There are many other places of interment scattered round the town; and three miles from the north bank of the river, the mountains of Afghanistan may be discerned, distant from 70 to 80 miles. During the cold season the joint stream of the Jhylum, Chinaub, and Ravey, at Rajghaut, near this city, is 500 yards broad, with an average depth of eight feet and a half; and the town itself stands nearly at the same distance from the sea as Allahabad, that is about 800 British miles by the courses of the rivers.

Mooltan is noted for its silks, and for a species of carpet much inferior to those of Persia. The surrounding country is pleasing, fertile, tolerably cultivated, and supplied with a sufficiency of water, procured from wells. The land is in general flat, and the soil excellent; but a large proportion of the villages in its vicinity are in ruins, and the whole exhibiting the appearance of a country once prosperous going to decay. About one half of the fields are still under tillage, and abundantly watered by means of Persian wheels. The produce is wheat, cotton, millet, turnips, carrots, and indigo. The trees are chiefly the

neem (melea azadarachta) and date, with a few dispersed peepul trees (ficus religiosa). The uncultivated country near the river is covered with a dense copse wood of tamarisk, mixed with a tree resembling the willow. At a distance from the river the country is bare, except where scattered with tufts of grass and a few date trees; the whole swarming with all sorts of game.

This city is supposed to have been the Malli of Alexander's historians, and in 1582 is described by Abul Fazel as one of the most ancient cities of Hindostan, with a brick fortress and lofty minaret, and possessing the tomb of Sheik Bahauddeen Zukmi, an orthodox Mahommedan saint. It appears to have been the seat of a principality so early as A. D. 1006, when it was plundered by Mahmood of Ghizni, a fate it again experienced in 1398, when captured by the Mogul army of Timour. For many years past the Nabob of Mooltan has acknowledged subjection to the Cabul Sovereign, and paid him annually a large tribute for protection, which he has never received. In 1806 it was attacked, captured, and plundered by the Seik Raja of Lahore, Runjeet Singh, who was then compelled to evacuate it by a scarcity of grain, but who has since annually repeated his visits either by proxy or in person. Besides these annoyances, in 1809, this miserable prince was also compelled to pay tribute to the Ameers of Sinde, who, according to the Indian system of oppressing the falling, took advantage of his feebleness. He was then described as being able to collect a considerable body of troops, but wholly unable to support them, on account of the weakness of his government, and the poverty and sterility of the greatest portion of his dominions. In 1818 Runjeet Singh again succeeded in capturing this unfortunate town, of which, as well as the district, it is said he still retains possession.—*(Elphinstone; Macartney, Abul Fazel, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

BAHAWULPOOR.—A principality of considerable extent, but small population, situated principally about the 29th degree of north latitude. The town of Bahawulpoor, from which the name of the country originated, is within the limits of the ancient province of Mooltan, about 62 miles S. by E. from the capital. Lat. 29° 19′ N. long. 71° 29′ E.

The territory of Bahawulpoor extends 280 miles from north-east to south-west, and 120 miles from north-west to south-east at the extreme points. For a certain distance it includes both banks of the Indus, the Jhylum, and Chinaub. The banks of the river are everywhere rich, but to the west of the Chinaub the soil at a distance from the rivers is very poor, and towards the east a mere desert. For four or five miles on each side of the Hyphasis, the surface is formed of sediment deposited by the river, and is very rich, but so soft that it can scarcely support a horse. Some portions are highly cultivated, others covered with coppice of low tamarisk trees, abounding with wild hogs;

hog deer, wild geese, partridges, and floricans are also plenty on the banks of the river. Towards the east approaching Bicanere and the Bhatty country, the soil degenerates to an arid sand, destitute of vegetation; to travel through which an establishment of camels is as requisite to carry a supply of water, as in the deserts of Arabia.

The principal towns are Bahawulpoor, Ahmedpoor, Jellalpoor, Seetpoor, and Ooch. The strongest place is the fort of Derawul, which owes its ability of resistance to the utter sterility of the sands by which it is surrounded, yet it was the usual residence of Bahawul Khan, the founder of the dynasty. The inhabitants of this territory are Juts, Balooches, and Hindoos, which is the general composition of the population in the adjacent countries; but within the limits of Bahawulpoor the Hindoos are the most numerous. The camels of this arid tract are reckoned particularly fleet and excellent, and in request for the purposes of hunting.

The town of Bahawulpoor stands within a short distance of the united streams of the Beyah and Sutuleje, named the Gurrah, which here winds very much, and is muddy, but the water when cleared is of an excellent quality. In circumference it extends about four miles, but the walls include gardens of mangoe trees. The houses are built of unburned bricks, with mud terraces and walls of the same, very thin. It is noted for the manufacture of silken girdles and turbans. The inhabitants are principally Juts and Balooches, both of which races profess the Mahommedan religion; but the number of Hindoos is also considerable. The Afghans are considered as strangers.

Bahawul Khan, the founder of this state, was rather a tributary prince than a governor delegated on the part of the Cabul sovereign. His ancestors acquired their dominions during the reign of Nadir Shah; he himself succeeded when an infant, and in 1809 had ruled above 40 years. His family, termed Daood Pooter, came from Shikarpoor, and was originally in a low station; but they claim descent from Abbass, the uncle of the prophet Mahommed. While Bahawul Khan survived, the administration was mild and well conducted, and although like other eastern princes he was addicted to the hoarding of treasure, his fiscal impositions were moderate. In 1809 his revenue amounted to 1,500,000 rupees, of which one-tenth was paid annually to the king of Cabul. His army then exceeded 10,000 men, including five battalions of matchlock-men regularly dressed, with several pieces of cannon well mounted, he having a foundery of his own. This prince died in 1811, leaving his son and successor, a person of very inferior abilities, exposed to great danger from the vicinity and increasing power of the Seiks, and the rapacity of the Ameers of Sinde.—*(Elphinstone, Registers, Smith, &c.)*

OOCH.—According to Mr. Elphinstone the Indus at this place receives the

Punjnud, a river formed by the union of the Punjab waters, which, though of a large volume, is much inferior in size to the Indus above the junction; there is reason, however, to believe, that during the dry season the confluence takes place much lower down. When the floods are at their height, the whole intervening space between Ooch and the main channel of the Indus is one vast sheet of water.

The town of Ooch is situated within the territories of the Bahawulpoor Nabob, about 75 miles S. by W. from the city of Mooltan. Lat. 29° 11′ N. long. 70° 50′ E. It has probably at some remote period been of greater importance than at present, as it has communicated its name to a distinct language, which has been examined by the missionaries, who found that of 32 words contained in a specimen of the Lord's prayer, 26 were radically the same with those found in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens. They ascertained also, that the Ooch or Wuch language differed so much from the Doogarese, that a translation of the scriptures into the latter would be nearly unintelligible to a native of the Ooch country, and vice versa.—*(Elphinstone, Missionaries, &c. &c.)*

MOUJGHUR.—This place is situated about 40 miles S. E. from Bahawulpoor. Lat. 28° 58′ N. long. 71° 57′ E. The town is enclosed by high walls and towers, and contains a mosque placed over the gateway, as also a tomb with a cupola, adorned with painted tiles; but the fort as a place of defence is small and weak. Water is found here in considerable abundance.

BACKAR *(Bhakar)*.—This is a remarkable fortress, subject to the Afghans of Cabul, and dependent on the district of Shekarpoor, but with a distinct governor. It is situated on an island in the Indus, lat. 27° 20′ N. long. 68° 37′ E. and appears to have been formerly a place of note, the capital of a district described by Abul Fazel, in 1582, as follows: "Doabeh Behker, containing 12 mahals; measurement 282,013 begahs; revenue 18,424,947 dams; seyurghal 60,419 dams. This district furnishes 4,690 cavalry and 11,100 infantry." By the same author the town is described: "Behker is a good fort, which in ancient books is called Munsoora. All the six rivers which pass through Lahore proceed past Behker in a collected stream, after having divided into two, one going to the north and the other to the south of the fort. Here very little rain falls; but the fruit is excellent."

Since the time of Abul Fazel this portion of Hindostan has apparently been undergoing a gradual deterioration by the encroaching of the desert, of which it threatens ere long to become a component part, and nothing can prevent this catastrophe, except what it is never likely to experience, an improved system of government, which shall secure to the husbandman a reasonable proportion of the

products of his labour. Abul Fazel describes it as a Doab or portion of country included between the rivers; and probably in his time the branch of the Indus, named the Nullah Suncra, was a stream of considerable magnitude; at present, however, except during the height of the floods, it is destitute of water, and even then never reaches the sea, the quantity being so small that it is either absorbed by the soil, or abstracted for the purposes of irrigation.

In 1651, when Dara Shecoh fled from his brother Aurengzebe, he directed his course towards Sinde, taking possession of the strong fort of Backar, which afterwards stood a considerable siege. Since that distant period we have scarcely any information respecting either the town or country, except that we know the former is possessed by the Afghans of Cabul, who maintain in it a governor and garrison.—*(Abul Fazel, Bernier, &c. &c. &c.)*

THE PRINCIPALITY OF SINDE *(Sindhu)*.

This large portion of the ancient province of Mooltan occupies both banks of the Indus, and, on account of its having for some years past possessed a separate and independent government, has risen into political importance, although its claims to distinction in other respects are not remarkable. The general boundaries of this territory including Tatta, are Mooltan and Afghanistan on the north; Cutch and the sea on the south; on the east it has Ajmeer, the Sandy desert, and Cutch; on the west the sea and the mountains of Baloochistan. In length it may be estimated at 300 miles by 80 the average breadth, and it is intersected in a diagonal line throughout its whole extent by the river Indus, which affords moisture to the husbandman, and to the merchant an excellent inland navigation, only excelled by that of Bengal. On the north Sinde adjoins the country of Bahawul Khan, and the fort of Subzul. Proceeding from thence south, the country is possessed by an infinite number of petty chiefs, who are in general tributary to the Ameers of Sinde.

The plain of the Indus from the sea to Sungur is included in the Sinde dominions. Of this division the portion which extends from the sea to Shekarpoor is inhabited by Sindees under a native prince, tributary to the Cabul sovereign, and is now generally named Sinde by the British; but in strictness it ought to be designated Lower Sinde, and from Shekarpoor inclusive to Sungur, Upper Sinde. The section to the west of the Indus is mostly inhabited by Baloochees, and with the exception of a small tract, north of Shekarpoor, is directly under the government of Cabul. To the east of the Indus the province of Sinde is a perfect level, from its most northern boundary to the sea shore, with the exception of two or three low hills, called the Gunjah hills, on the island formed by the Indus, on which stands Hyderabad, the capital. On the western bank of the

river, from the latitude of Sehwan (26° 6′ N.) to the sea, the face of the country varies; some districts being mountainous, others flat, and some interspersed with ranges of low hills. Northward from Sehwan the plain extends to the hills of Seweestan. The district of Chandookee, enclosed between the trunk of the Indus and a remarkable branch, is highly cultivated and very productive, and yields, even under its present misgovernment, eight lacks of rupees annually to the revenue. This branch of the great river diverges to the west, and after spreading over a wide tract, which at different seasons is either a marsh or a lake, it again joins the main stream 70 miles below the point of separation.

A great part of the province lying to the westward of the confines where the monsoon ceases, is a barren sterile soil, and totally unproductive from the absence of moisture. Easterly from the meridian of 67° 40′, the land near to the Indus appears capable of the highest degree of improvement; but to the northward of Tatta, and a small distance to the westward of that river, the country is mountainous, barren, rocky, and thinly inhabited. In the months of June and July the thermometer ranges from 90° to 100°, but the air in the northern parts of Sinde is so pure, and so much refreshed by the cooling breezes from the westward, that the heat is not excessive. About Hyderabad the climate is healthy, and the air in the month of August remarkably clear, the difference of refraction in astronomical observations being then scarcely perceptible.

The Indus from the city of Tatta to a branch called the Fulalee has from two to two and a half fathoms of water; off Tatta it has three, four, and more frequently five fathoms, with a muddy bottom. The banks in the vicinity of Hyderabad are in general well cultivated, except where the Ameers have made enclosures to confine game, but these are so numerous and extensive as to occupy many of the most valuable spots of land. In the month of August the Fulalee has generally two and three fathoms of water; but during the fair season it is dried up. The Goonee branch is much the same as the Fulalee, with respect to inhabitants and cultivation, but has less water on an average, being only from one and a half to two fathoms. It is also much narrower, contracting in many places to thirty yards, and can only be termed navigable in the month of August.

The cultivation of Sinde depends on the periodical rains, and the process of irrigation by means of canals and water courses. During the swelling of the river grain and other seeds are raised, and the remainder of the year is employed in the production of indigo, sugar cane, huldee, &c. Every begah of land watered by a canal or wheel, pays a revenue of from one and a quarter to three and a half rupees to government; one wheel is capable of watering 16

begahs. A duty of one rupee is also levied on each khunwan (120 pounds) of grain reaped by the farmer. Garden land producing fruit trees pays two and a half rupees per begah to government, and the spring crop of tobacco yields a revenue of four and a half rupees per begah. But these exactions do not end here; for on all the productions of the earth duties are subsequently collected at the market, and articles which have paid duty in one district are not thereby exempted from fresh extortions if transported into another. It generally happens that the sum total of duties and customs levied by the government greatly exceeds the original prime cost of the articles. When boats arrive at Tatta, a tax is exacted proportionate to the sum that has been expended in their construction.

The principal articles of home produce exported from Sinde are rice, ghee, hides, shark fins, pot-ash, saltpetre, assafœtida, b'dellium, madder, frankincense, Tatta cloths, horses, indigo, oleaginous and other seeds. Allum, musk, and horses, are imported from Mooltan, and the countries to the northward, for re-exportation. The other imports into Sinde are tin, iron, lead, steel, ivory, European manufactures, sandal and other scented woods from the south of India; swords and carpets from Khorasan and Candahar; silk and other articles from the Persian gulf. The Mooltany merchants settled in Sinde are the principal traders, and the wealthiest part of the community.

The exports from Sinde to Bombay are shark fins and flesh, b'dellium, ghee, pot-ash, saltpetre, hides, oil of sesame, wheat, assafœtida, munjeet, sirshif oil, raisins, almonds, colouring plants, pistachio flowers and nuts, shawls, cloths, mustard, wild saffron, black cummin seed from Kerman, white cummin seed, chintzes from Sinde and Khorasan. The imports to Sinde from Bombay are white sugar, sugar-candy, steel, iron, tin, tutenague, lead, cochineal, betel nut, black pepper, dried coco nuts, vermillion, red lead, quicksilver, Bengal and China silks and cloths, cinnamon, cardamoms, cloves, nutmeg, sandal wood, ginger, China ware, pearls, aloes, and amattas.

To Muscat are exported dressed leather, rice, wheat, ghee, sirshif oil, b'dellium, chintzes, and other cloths. The imports from Muscat to Sinde are dates, limes, roses, Ghilaun silk, elephants' teeth, pearls, almonds, preserved fruit, cowries, slaves, arsenic, senna from Mecca, quince seeds, and gum. The imports to Sinde from Cutch are cotton, snuff, unwrought iron found in Cutch, and the small Arabian aloe. The intercourse between this territory and the provinces to the northward is chiefly carried on by means of the Indus, which is navigable for small vessels to a great distance from the sea. There are no established land caravans from Sinde to Mooltan and Cabul, but an intercourse is carried on by merchants and travellers. The East India Company had formerly a factory, and

carried on a considerable trade in the province of Sinde, but it was withdrawn, probably owing to the disorderly state and consequent poverty of the country. An unsuccessful attempt was recently made by the Company from Bombay to renew the commercial intercourse.

Commerce and agriculture of all descriptions have rapidly declined since the accession of the present rapacious rulers of Sinde. The duties levied on foreign and domestic trade are estimated at two thirds of the capital of the merchant and mechanic; and the cultivator is compelled to sell his grain at a low price to the government, by which it is monopolized, and subsequently resold at a considerable profit. In addition to this evil, extensive tracts of the best land on the banks of the Indus are set apart, and converted to desolate wastes and jungles for the preservation of game, the Ameers being unfortunately most passionately addicted to hunting. The British embassy, in 1809, saw scarcely anything deserving the name of cultivation from Corachie to Helliah, on the road to Hyderabad, a distance of 150 miles.

The internal government of Sinde is a military despotism. In 1809 the supreme authority was vested in three brothers of the Talpoory family, whose names were Meer Gholaum Ali, Meer Kurreem Ali, and Meer Murad Ali. The oldest brother, Meer Gholaum Ali, had the title of Hakim, or ruler of Sinde, and was considered as the head of the government. There were two other brothers of the reigning family, Meer Sohrab and Meer Thara, who, though not ostensibly partakers of the supreme authority, possessed large tracts of territory, and exercised every function of sovereignty within their respective limits.

These Ameers belong to the Mahommedan sect of Shiahs, but they are remarkably tolerant both to the Soonees and to the adherents of the Brahmins. The Mahommedan population compose the military strength of the country, and during the interval of peace are employed as husbandmen, artificers, and menial servants; the internal commerce being almost exclusively carried on by the Hindoo inhabitants. The great bulk of the population consists of Hindoos, Juts, and Baloochees. The Hindoos were probably the Aborigines, the Juts the descendants of the early converted Hindoos, and the Balooches strangers. The majority of the Mahommedans are of the Soonee faith, although the Ameers and some of the men of rank be Shiahs. Although Sinde be now but scantily peopled, it appears at some former period to have been much more thickly settled and inhabited; and the extraordinary number of tombs and burial grounds scattered over the country, where no population is at present seen, is quite remarkable. From Tatta to near Hyderabad the country is almost destitute of human beings, there being only one village on the whole route.

Sinde is a province swarming with military adventurers, from whence the

native powers of Hindostan are in general supplied with infantry mercenaries. The armies of the Sinde government are usually collected from various tribes who hold lands by a military tenure from the Ameers, at whose summons they are obliged to bring their quotas into the field. These tribes are reckoned at 42 in number, many of whom have retained their distinctive appellations since the first Mahommedan invasion, and consisted principally of adventurers, who descended from the lofty mountains of Baloochistan into the plains of Sinde, with the exception of the Jokia and the Jut tribes, which are both of Sindian origin. The Ameers of Sindia collectively can bring into the field an army of 36,000 men, composed of irregular cavalry, armed with matchlocks, swords, and shields, and intended to act as infantry whenever required by circumstances, and it is not unusual for the whole army of Sinde to dismount and fight on foot. The Baloochees are reckoned good marksmen, but not susceptible of discipline. The pay of a common soldier in the field is five pice per day, including his provisions, during peace he receives an allowance of about one pound and a half of rice per diem. The Sindean cavalry are but indifferently mounted, and, although stouter, are not such good swordsmen as the natives of upper Hindostan. The infantry resemble the Persians and Arabs, and like most Hindostany soldiers are overloaded with arms; besides a sword, shield, and dagger, the cavalry carry matchlocks. Although the produce of Sinde be at present equal to three times the consumption of its inhabitants, it is nevertheless badly cultivated and thinly peopled, and wholly unequal to the subsistence of any formidable force. An invading army might be conveniently opposed on the banks of the Indus, and by proper precautions reduced to extreme distress for want of provisions; but it is not probable that any force of magnitude will ever select so barren and unpromising a route.

After the death of Meer Futteh Ali, his then surviving brothers divided the territorial possessions and revenues; the oldest, Meer Gholaum Ali, receiving one half as the ostensible head of the government, and being bound to defray the permanent, civil, and military expenses of the state. These charges, however, are inconsiderable, as during a cessation of external hostilities very few soldiers are retained. As is the practice in many other eastern principalities, the hoarding of treasure is a favourite maxim of state policy, the amount of specie deposited in different forts throughout the country is consequently supposed to be very great, a very small proportion of what is received being ever permitted again to enter into circulation.

The districts subject to the authority of Meer Sohrab are situated in the north-eastern quarter of Sinde, and yield a revenue of about five lacks and a half of rupees per annum. His government is described as milder, and more

favourable to agriculture and commerce than that of the principal Ameers. His troops are computed at 4 or 5000 men. The authority of Meer Thara extends over the districts on the eastern bank of the Indus; his revenue does not exceed 3 lacks of rupees, but his country is improving, and his troops amount to 6000 men. He was some years ago defeated and taken prisoner by Meer Gholaum Ali, but at the solicitation of the other Ameers released, and his territories restored.

The customs and revenues of Sinde are farmed to private persons, and the Ameers, with the view of creating competition, generally remove the farmers annually, and they having consequently no interest in the improvement of the country, direct their attention to the realizing the greatest possible profit within the period of their contract. In effecting this object they are guilty of many extortions, of which the Ameers subsequently avail themselves, as a pretext for confiscating whatever property they may have accumulated.

The men of Sinde are generally of a middle size, well made, and more robust than the more southern natives of India. Their complexions are a dark tawny, with black eyes and eyebrows, and uncommonly good teeth. Like the Seiks, they allow their hair to grow, and wear such large turbans, that some of them contain 80 yards of muslin. The Mahommedans are almost all Soonees, and mostly of the sect of Haneefee, but they have few religious prejudices. The females are particularly distinguished for beauty of face, and symmetry of person, yet they are not doomed to very strict seclusion, and the dancing girls of Sinde in figure, manners, and appearance, greatly excel those of Upper Hindostan. When the missionaries examined a translation of the Lord's prayer into the northern Sindee language, they found that of 32 words of the latter, 24 agreed with the Bengalese and Hindostany specimen; and of the southern Sindee (which differs in termination from the northern in almost every instance) 24 words were found radically the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany examples.

The whole of this territory swarms with mendicants in a state of the utmost apparent misery; but here also, as in other Mahommedan countries, a class of sturdy beggars are seen, pretending to be Seids, or descendants of the prophet, and demanding charity in the most peremptory and arrogant manner. These charitable objects frequently go about in parties of seven or eight, soliciting alms on horseback, well dressed, armed, and mounted, with a green flag carried before them, and when their demands are not complied with they bestow abusive language on the obdurate with the most liberal profusion.

The province of Sinde was the first conquest in Hindostan effected by the Mahommedans, which long preceded their invasions by the route of Attock and

Lahore. The Khalif Ali sent a general who effected some conquests on the borders of Sinde. Moavyeh sent twice his General Amir, or Hamir, but after long and bloody contests he was forced to desist. Under the Khalif Walid, the conquest was at last effected by Mahommed Cossim in the year of the Hijera 99; but on account of the distance, sterility, and natural strength of the country, it did not long remain attached to the Caliphat of Bagdad. Subsequent to this there appears to have existed two contemporaneous authorities in Sinde; the one a Rajpoot family, and the other a Mahommedan; the latter probably converted from the Hindoo faith, both of which assumed the title of Jam. The Lomra, a Rajpoot race, are said to have retained possession for the long period of 500 years, after which it was successively occupied by different chiefs; one of whom, Mirza Eesau, of the Turkanny tribe, having called in the Portugueze to his assistance against the Soubahdar of Mooltan, they plundered the city of Tatta, which was then the seat of government.

Sinde remained with the Turkannees until the reign of Acber, who dispatched an army by the way of Sewistan, which succeeded in effecting its conquest, and from that era it became tributary to the Delhi emperors, who conducted the government through the medium of Soubahdars resident at Mooltan and Tatta. About A. D. 1737, during the alarm excited by the threatened invasion of Hindostan by Nadir Shah, Mahommed Abassi Caloree, of Sewee, availed himself of the apprehensions of the Soubahdar of Sinde, and influenced him to consign the government to his hands for three lacks of rupees, which he promised him, but never paid. In 1739, Nadir Shah defeated the Calorie chiefs, and obliged them to take refuge in Amercote, on the borders of the desert; but he afterwards permitted them to resume the government as tributaries.

Mahommed Abassi Caloree (or Calhora) died in 1771, and was succeeded by other princes of the same family until 1779, when a tribe of Balooch origin, named the Talpoories, headed by some of the present Ameers, and their eldest brother Futteh Ali Khan, rebelled against the Calorie Nabob, and expelled him from the country. The surviving representatives of the Calories had recourse to Timour Shah of Cabul, who, under pretence of reinstating them, commenced a war against the Talpoory Ameers, but desisted for an annual tribute of 12 lacks of rupees, which was regularly paid until the death of that sovereign in 1792. On this event it was reduced to seven lacks of rupees, and subsequently, during the civil wars of his successors, withheld altogether. The Ameers of Sinde being thus relieved from all fears on the side of Cabul, began to encroach on their neighbours, wrested Corachie from the chief of Baloochistan, and extended their frontiers on the side of Shekarpoor and Ajmeer.

After the decease of Meer Futteh Ali, the then surviving brothers divided

the revenue into four shares; two of which were assigned to the eldest, Gholaum Ali, and one to each of his brothers. At the same period the present remarkable constitution of Sinde was framed, by the construction of which the three Ameers ruled conjointly, with succession for their sons to the junior rank. In accordance with this system, on the death of Meer Gholaum Ali, who was killed while hunting in 1812, by the charge of a buck, his two brothers each ascended a step, while his son took the lowest seat in the triumvirate, the whole being arranged without the slightest tumult or bloodshed. A small portion of the province still remains in the hands of Meer Thara, a connexion or dependant of the Calories, who formerly ruled the country until superseded by the Talpoories.

The neighbouring chiefs with whom the Ameers maintain a political intercourse are, the Raja of Joudpoor (from whom in 1813, they captured the fortress of Amercote); the Nabob of Bahawulpoor; Mahmood Khan, the chief of Baloochistan; the Row of Cutch; and Meer Khan Lais, chief of the petty state of Soonneany in Mekran. The territories of the last mentioned prince, who is tributary to Baloochistan, and inimical to Sinde, occupy the sea coast to the west of Corachie. In 1809, an envoy from Jeswunt Row Holcar arrived at Kitee, the residence of Meer Thara, for the purpose of proposing an union between his master, the French, and the sovereigns of Persia, against the British, but the proposal was not favourably received.

The revenues of Sinde, during the Calorie dynasty, were estimated at 80 lacks of rupees per annum, but in 1809 were said to be reduced to about 43 lacks, yet in 1813 had again risen to 61 lacks, from which ought to be deducted the Cabul tribute of 12 lacks per annum, which with its immense arrear of one crore and a half (£1,500,000) is always impending over the Ameers. The natural resources of the territory are considerable, and under an improved system of government, would render its chiefs extremely formidable to their neighbours to the north and west; but this province, although within the limits of Hindostan, is so detached from the main body by the great sandy desert, that it takes no part in its politics.

The resemblance of this country to Egypt has often been remarked. A smooth fertile plain bounded on the one side by mountains, and on the other by a desert; divided by a large river, which forms a sort of Delta as it approaches the sea, and annually inundates the land in the vicinity of its banks. Even in political circumstances they have an accidental resemblance, being both tyrannized over by foreign and barbarous tribes, yielding a reluctant obedience to a distant and disturbed monarchy. Here, however, the comparison ends, as Sinde is placed in the midst of countries destitute of industry, differing little from

each other in their wants and productions, and with no conveniences for external trade, while the geographical situation of Egypt, betwixt India and the great European market, point it out as an emporium of commerce. But no change for the better can be expected in either, while the countries continue under the sway of their present ignorant and rapacious rulers.—*(Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Elphinstone, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

HYDERABAD.—The capital of the modern principality of Sinde. Lat. 25° 22′ N. long. 68° 41′ E. The fortress stands on a rocky hill, the base of which, distant about 1000 paces, is washed by a branch of the Indus named the Fulalee. The nearest point of the main channel of the Indus bears from the fort W. by S. 3 miles. It is of an irregular pentagonal figure, built to suit the shape of the mass of rock on which it stands, defended by round towers, and a high brick wall perforated with loop-holes. In many places the sides of the hill are so steep, that the ascent to the fortress would be difficult even were it breached to the foundation. The weakest part of the fort is towards the south-east, opposite a break in the rock from the Fulalee. The northern side of the fort has a dry ditch cut in the rock, but not above 12 feet broad. The walls have loop-holes for matchlocks, but the artillery is placed so high as to be useless against an enemy very near the fort. Its natural situation is strong, and the whole is capable of effectually resisting every native attack, but would present a feeble opposition to European assailants. On all these walls there were, in 1809, about 70 pieces of artillery mounted, but except eight or ten they were all in a very bad condition.

There are several handsome mosques within the fort, but no buildings worth notice in its vicinity, except Gholaum Shah's (the founder's) tomb, on a hill to the south of the fort. The shops in the bazar are kept well supplied, and are mostly tenanted by Hindoo Banyans. Although no encouragement is given to industry by the Ameers, the artizans are numerous and skilful, particularly the armourers, who are noted for the excellence of their workmanship, and the artificers who embroider on leather.

The grand branch of the Indus does not approach Hyderabad nearer than three miles. Boats laden with heavy goods, to avoid the inconvenience of land carriage, enter the Fulalee branch of the Indus, about 13 miles to the northward of Hyderabad, on the east side of the main river. The route from Tatta up the Fulalee to Hyderabad is the longest, as it winds far to the eastward, and then curves to the north-west, running past the hill on which Hyderabad stands, forming an island named Gunga. The Fulalee, in the month of August, is here from two and a half to three fathoms in depth.

The soil in the vicinity is of a light sandy colour, and very fruitful when properly cultivated. Two miles and a half to the southward of Hyderabad is a table land extending about two miles; and 12 miles to the southward is a range of rocky hills, part of which approaches the Fulalee, and is called the Gungah hills. Three miles west by south is a village on the eastern bank of the Indus, from which boats are continually crossing with passengers to Cotrie on the opposite side, which is on the route from Tatta to Hyderabad. This city is the residence of the Ameers, or present sovereigns of Sinde, yet the revenue collected only amounts to the trifling sum of 60,000 rupees per annum, and the population to about 15,000. There is, however, no standing army kept at Hyderabad, each Ameer retaining a few troops which serve in time of peace to garrison the fort.—*(Maxfield, Smith, Kinneir, Pottinger, &c.)*

GOONEE RIVER.—This small river appears to be a branch of the great Indus, which diverges during the rains from the main trunk, a short distance to the south of Hyderabad, from whence it flows in a southerly direction to Luckput Bunder, when its further navigation is interrupted by a mound which has been erected to restrain its waters, and to the base of which the salt water of the ocean ascends, through its former channel, here named the Loonee, or saline. It passes in its progress south through part of the great salt morass, named the Runn, and is navigable for boats in the months of July and August.

NOORI.—A village in the province of Sinde, situated on the banks of the Fulalee, 15 miles below Hyderabad. Lat. 25° 8′ N.

MAHOMMED KHAN'S TAUNDA.—A town in the province of Sinde, subject to the Ameers, situated on the Goonee, 30 miles S. E. from Hyderabad. Lat. 25° 3′ N. long 69° 3′ E. This is a large and flourishing place, the residence of Meer Sultan Ali, a relation of the reigning Ameers, who holds several fine districts, and whose capital is the grand rendezvous of the northern merchants, who annually carry horses to the south. In 1813, his revenues amounted to between four and five lacks of rupees per annum, and his country was in a state of progressive improvement. The country from Hyderabad is capable of being rendered very productive, but where under the immediate superintendance of the Ameers it is nearly waste.—*(Pottinger, &c.)*

CHANDOOKEE.—A district subject to the Ameers of Sinde, situated about the 27th degree of north latitude, and during the floods completely insulated by the Indus, the Arul, and the Larkhanu rivers, forming an island of triangular shape, which is reckoned the most productive in the province, and in 1813, was said to yield a revenue of eight lacks of rupees.

LARKHANU.—A town in the Chandookee district, 53 miles S. S. W. from

Shekarpoor. Lat. 26° 56′ N. long. 68° 44′ E. The Ameers of Sinde here levy tolls on merchants entering their dominions from the north-west, and maintain a garrison to restrain the Baloochees of Cutch Gundava.—*(Pottinger, &c.)*

SEHWAUN.—A town and district in the province of Sinde, intersected by the Indus, and situated between the 26th and 27th degrees of north latitude. The soil is sandy, and the land but little cultivated, although watered by one of the largest rivers in the world. The town of Sehwaun stands on the west bank of the Indus, in lat. 26° 11′ N. long. 68° 7′ E. about 65 miles N. N. W. from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, near the confluence of an Afghanistan river named the Arul and the Indus, which here in the rainy season form a jeel, or shallow lake.

CHAUKER.—A large district in the province of Sinde, intersected by the Indus, and situated between the 25th and 26th degrees of north latitude. It forms part of the dominions of the Ameers of Sinde, but respecting the condition of its interior nothing is known, except that its soil is sandy and indifferently cultivated. The chief town is named Haulla.

NOOSHUHRA.—A town in the province of Sinde, 50 miles N. by W. from Hyderabad. Lat. 26° 4′ N. long. 68° 33′ E.

ARACOTE.—According to native reports, a few days journey to the west of Hyderabad there is a pagoda, dedicated to the goddess Bhavani, at a place named Aracote. It is described as being situated in the centre of seven ranges of hills, which the multitude of pilgrims who repair to it consider as too sacred for human steps, and the resort of aerial beings.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

NUSSERPOOR.—A town and district in the province of Sinde, situated to the west of Hyderabad, the modern capital of that country. On the west it is bounded by the Indus, and during the wet season it is irrigated by many small currents branching off from the main trunk, some of which afterwards rejoin the parent stream, but a great proportion are drawn off by the natives for the purposes of husbandry, or are absorbed by the arid soil. When the periodical rains are over, and the dry season returns, these temporary currents wholly disappear. Nusserpoor, the chief town, stands about 20 miles N. E. from Hyderabad, in lat. 25° 30′ N. long. 68° 56′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, this district is described as follows: "Circar Nusserpoor, containing seven mahals, revenue 7,834,600 dams."

KETEE.—This is the principal town belonging to Meer Thara, one of the Ameers of Sinde, but its position has not been satisfactorily ascertained. It is said to be larger than Corachie, and situated on an island formed by the Indus.

TATTA.

A large district in the province of Mooltan, situated between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Sinde Proper; on the south by the sea; on the west it has the sea and Baloochistan; and on the east in modern times the main branch of the river Indus. That its ancient dimensions and political importance were of much greater magnitude will appear from the following description drawn up by Abul Fazel in 1582.

"Formerly circar Tatta was an independent territory, but now it forms part of the empire. The length from Backar to Cutch and Mekran is 257 coss, and the breadth from the town of Budeyan to Bunder Lahry measures 100 coss, and again from Chunder of Backar to Bicanere is 60 coss. On the east lies Gujerat, on the north Backar and Sewee, on the south the sea, and on the west Cutch (Gundava) and Mekran. Alore is now called Tatta and Debiel. Here the northern mountains form several branches, one of which runs to Candahar. Another branch commences on the sea coast, goes to the town of Koubhar, where it is called Ramgur, and from thence proceeds to Sewistan, where it is called Lucky. Here are a considerable tribe of Baloochees, called Kulmany. They are 20,000 families, and can raise 10,000 choice cavalry. Camels are bred here. Another chain of mountains runs from Sehwaun to Sewee, where it is called Khutter. Here dwell a tribe named Nomurdy.

"In Tatta the winter is so moderate that there is no occasion for furs, and in summer, excepting in Sewistan, the heat is not excessive. The inhabitants travel chiefly by water, and possess not less than 40,000 boats. Here are iron mines and salt pits. Rice is fine and in abundance. At the distance of 12 miles from Tatta is a quarry of yellow stone, which is cut to any size, and used for building. The food of the inhabitants is chiefly fish and rice. They dry fish in the sun, and also extract oil from them.

"Tatta is now (1582) the fourth circar to Mooltan. From the northern borders of Tatta to Utch is a range of mountains of hard black stones, inhabited by various tribes of Baloochees, and on the south from Utch to Gujerat are sandy mountains, the residence of the Ashambetty and other tribes. The country, from Backar to Nusserpoor and Amercote, is peopled by the Sowra and Jareecheh (Jahraja) and other tribes. Circar Tatta contains 18 mahals; revenue 25,999,991 dams. Tatta became subject to the Mahommedans in the year of Hijera 99 (A. D. 721), during the caliphat of Walid."

Since Abul Fazel wrote, this district has experienced a gradual decay, which has of late years been so accelerated, that the country is in danger of returning

to a state of nature. Although similar in many of their geographical features, the Delta of the Indus presents in other respects a remarkable contrast to that of the Ganges. On the west from the sea coast to the city of Tatta, scarcely any thing is to be seen but an arid sandy country, covered in different places with the milk bush, and other shrubs peculiar to sterile lands, almost destitute of fresh water, which must be procured from an immense depth under ground. Here and there low ranges of bare scraggy hills are seen, but scarcely a vestige of cultivation or population for many miles from the sea.

Between Tatta and Corachie, the modern sea-port of Sinde, are many tombs and ruins, which would indicate a former state of prosperity, very different from its present miserable condition. The walls and other remains of the ancient city of Bambarah are still discernible, but now covered with baubul and other wild shrubs, and inhabited only by a few Indian ascetics. Between Tatta and Corachie, there is an inland lake of considerable extent and navigable for small boats, but the water is brackish. It is probably the forsaken channel of some very ancient branch of the Indus, during the freshes of which, when the floods are at the highest, the low country is inundated. As the city of Tatta is approached from the sea, the soil and aspect of the country improve; but still without trees and almost destitute of inhabitants. Camels are bred in this part of the district, the tender parts of the brushwood serving them for forage. From Sinde to Goa, the natives of India use the word Kaunta (a fork) to signify also borders on the sea coast, and know the Delta of the Indus under the name of Sindhu Kaunta, which approaches nearly to the term preserved in the Latin maps, of Canthi Sindi.

For about 40 years past, Tatta has been under the government of the Ameers of Sinde, and subjected to every species of extortion and oppression. In 1809, the city and district of Tattà were said to yield à revenue of 145,000 rupees per annum; the district of Sunkra 80,000; the sea-port of Corachie 110,000; and Dharaja 80,000. The district of Kahralee is asserted to have produced a revenue of six lacks of rupees during the government of the Calorie dynasty, which is now reduced to 190,000 rupees. The land situated between the salt and fresh water branches of the river is said to yield 91,000 rupees per annum. The whole district contains only one town, which is Tatta.

This quarter of Hindostan was invaded by the Mahommedans at a very early period after the promulgation of that religion. The Caliph Omar dispatched Moghaireh Abul Aas, who, embarking at Bahrein by sea, attacked the western parts of the Delta of the Indus; but meeting with unexpected resistance, he was defeated and lost his life. As Omar died in A. D. 641, this expedition must have been undertaken about 639, or 640. Othman, his successor, at-

empted an invasion by land, but having sent people to survey the roads, he was deterred by their reports. It does not appear to have been actually subdued by the Emperor Acber until 1590, although long prior to that period, included in the list of provinces subjected to his government. Since the fall of the Mogul empire, it has followed the destiny of Sinde, and still continues under the dominion of its semi-barbarous Ameers.—(*Abul Fazel, Smith, Maxfield, Welford, Drummond, &c. &c.*)

TATTA (*Tuttah*).—The capital of the above district, situated on the banks of the Indus, about 130 miles from the sea, by the course of the river. Lat. 24° 44′ N. long. 68° 17′ E. This town stands in a valley formed by a range of low rocky hills, which, during the freshes of the river, is inundated; but being placed on an eminence, apparently formed by ancient ruins, during the height of the floods, it has the appearance of an island. The streets are very narrow and dirty, but the houses, although irregularly built of mud, chopped straw, and wood, are superior to the low huts commonly seen in native towns. The better sort of houses are built of brick and lime. The old English factory, purchased by the Company in 1751, still remains, and may be reckoned the best house, not only in Tatta but in the whole province of Sinde. All the rooms of this house have ventilators, resembling the funnels of chimnies, which communicate with the roof, and are intended to promote a circulation of air during the hot winds, when all the windows are shut to exclude the dust. To the southward of the factory within the town, are the remains of an old fort, which must have been a strong position against assailants ignorant of artillery tactics. At present there is no fort, nor is there any military force stationed in the town, which is governed by a nabob, or deputy, from the Ameers of Sinde.

Tatta was originally defended by a strong brick wall, with round towers, but now these are a heap of ruins, and the mosques and pagodas that remain exhibit symptoms of rapid decay. The circumference of the town is from four to five miles, and the number of inhabitants about 15,000. It was once famous for its commerce and cloth manufactories, besides an extensive trade in rice, wheat, hides, &c. but all these are greatly diminished. The chief exports are ghee, gugal or b'dellium, pot-ash, oil, raisins, saltpetre, aniseed, shaikun, musk, chintzes, shawls from Shekarpoor, carpets, and a variety of drugs. The imports are coco nuts, pepper, cardamoms, betel nut, nutmegs, cinnamon, silk, raw and manufactured, cochineal, broad cloth, boglipores, kincobs, purpets, quicksilver, tin, iron, steel, copper, lead, black wood, sandal wood, and sandal wood oil. The only manufactures now carried on at Tatta, are a few white cloths and coloured loongees; and the shops exhibit a melancholy picture of poverty and depression.

The Indus is in general shoal, opposite to Tatta; on which account boats trading to that city come-to off a small village named Begurah, distant five miles south by east, where the deepest water is four fathoms, but for the most part only two, and the river about one mile in breadth. The strength of the current is here broken by the small island of Begurah, which is 200 yards from the western bank of the river. The boats used on the Indus are flat bottomed, square head and stern, low forward, high abaft, and drawing only a few inches of water. Oars are seldom used, the boats being usually pushed along with poles; and when the wind is fair, recourse is had to sails. Their form is broad and very commodious for the purpose of travelling. From Tatta to Hyderabad there are four routes, two by land and two by water; the shortest of which may be estimated at 53 miles. At this place the monsoon prevails with considerable violence, between May and October, attended with hard squalls of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain.

The country around Tatta is a rich soil, watered by conduits from the Indus, and partly overflowed during the freshes, but susceptible of the highest cultivation. On the hill of Muckalee, a mile to the west of Tatta, is an amazing number of graves and mausoleums, the habitations of the dead greatly exceeding in number those of the living. The tomb of Mirza Eesau is uncommonly magnificent, and well executed, and is supposed to have been erected about A. D. 1622. It consists of a large square stone building, two stories high, having a great dome, supported by numerous pillars, which, as well as the body of the building, are covered with sentences extracted from the Koran. Some of the inscriptions on the other tombs appear fresh and quite legible, although engraved 160 years ago. On the banks of the Indus, seven miles above Tatta, is another hill, covered with white mosques and tombs of Mahommedans, some of the latter of considerable size. Near to one of the smallest, which is held in great veneration both by Mahommedans and Hindoos, is a large bone stuck upright in the earth, about 18 feet long, one thick, and two broad, which the natives assert was procured from a fish. The hill, on which these graves are placed, if fortified, would command the passage of the river.

Dr. Robertson is of opinion, that Tatta is the Pattala of the ancients; but the low and alluvial districts of Sindé have undergone, even recently, such changes, that nothing positive can be affirmed on this head. The name may possibly have referred to the city of Brahminabad, now in ruins, but which appears to have been a metropolis in the remote ages of Hindoo antiquity, and is, by Abul Fazel, described as follows: "The ancient capital was Brahminabad, which was then a very populous city. The fort had 1400 bastions, a tenab

distant from each other, and to the present day there are considerable vestiges of this fortification."

Mention is made of Tatta, in history, so early as 92 of the Hijera, or A. D. 677. The modern city is said to have been founded by Jam Mundel, the 14th of the Someah dynasty, A. D. 1485. It was taken and plundered by the Portugueze in 1555, but continued in the 14th century an extensive and populous city, of great commerce, and possessing manufactures of silk, Caramania wool, and cotton; it was also famous for its cabinet ware. Even so late as 1742, when visited by Nadir Shah, it was a place of considerable trade and population; but it has since declined to its present state of desolation. It continued, however, the capital of the province, until the present rulers built the fortress of Hyderabad, and transferred thither the seat of government; since which its population has decreased with such rapidity, that at present more than two-thirds of the houses are uninhabited. Most of the Sindean cloths exported to Hindostan, Persia, and Khorasan, are still manufactured here; the miserable remains of its once flourishing commerce.

Travelling distance from Bombay, 741 miles; from Calcutta, 1602 miles.—*(Smith, Maxfield, Pottinger, Rennell, &c. &c.)*

BAMBARAH.—The ruins of a city in the Tatta district, situated to the west of the city of Tatta, and conjectured to be those of an ancient city named Brahminabad, by Persian authors, who report it as having been the capital of a flourishing Hindoo kingdom, in the 10th century. They also name it Mahaura, and Manhawar. The site of Bambarah was on a hill now covered with trees and bushes, and exhibiting in the neighbourhood many tombs of Sindean warriors, who fell here in a battle between Gholaum Shah and Meer Ali.—*(Maxfield, &c. &c. &c.)*

CORACHIE. This is the modern sea-port of Tatta and Sinde, and may be noticed along with them, although it does not, geographically, belong to either, being a recent usurpation of the Ameers. It stands in lat. 24° 51′ N. long. 67° 16′ E. 57 miles from the city of Tatta, and E. by S. from Cape Monze.

MULCHAND KALAUDY.—A small building for the accommodation of travellers in the province of Sinde, district of Tatta, 10 miles east from Corachie. Lat. 24° 50′ N. long. 67° 27′ E. The surrounding country is a hard sandy soil, bounded by rocky hills to the north, and covered with clusters of the milk bush, a shrub called lye by the Sindees, and a small prickly shrub; the whole abounding with hares, jackals, and partridges. Four miles on this side of Corachie, there is a range of scraggy sterile hills, on the top of which are several tombs, but not a tree is to be seen. At this place there are some wells of good water

Five miles further on, approaching Tatta there is a choultry, erected by Hajee Omar, and near to it a well of excellent water, 140 feet deep, dug to supply travellers; an act of charity duly estimated in this parched and sultry region. The country around this choultry is so hard, and the water so remote from the surface, that the labourers must for a long time have been supplied with water brought from a distance, before they could reach that which they were in search of.—*(Smith, Maxfield, &c.)*

HADJEE OMARKALAUDY.—A place of refreshment in the Tatta district, 15 miles E. of Corachie, on the road to the city of Tatta. About a mile to the S. W. of this place the soil is a fine loam, and overflowed during the freshes by the Indus. To the north there is a fine well about 130 feet deep, with steps to go down. From hence to the Pepel choultry, distant eight miles, the road is bad, broken ground with a loose sandy soil.

GAHRAH.—This small town is situated in lat. 24° 46′ N. long. 67° 56′ E. about 24 miles W. from the city of Tatta. It stands on the brink of a salt water creek communicating with the sea, and navigable for small boats; but the trade is insignificant, and the poverty of the inhabitants extreme. There are a few wells near the town, but the water is neither good nor plentiful. The surrounding country consists of a light salt sand, which in a fresh breeze rises in such clouds as almost to blind man and beast. A strong glare is also reflected during the day, and the wind is dry and excessively parching. A few lye shrubs are scattered over this tract. Two miles E. N. E. from Gahrah the country improves, and there is a plain, three miles in extent, and capable of cultivation, but remaining in a state of nature.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

GUGAH.—A town, containing 600 inhabitants, situated about ten miles west from the city of Tatta. Lat. 24° 45′ N. long. 68° 7′ E.

HELAI.—A village near the Indus in the province of Sinde, on the road from Tatta to Hyderabad. Lat. 24° 52′ N. long. 68° 27′ E. About a mile to the west of Helai are two remarkable hills, on which are situated several buildings. The land adjacent is cultivated and has a fertile appearance. At this place the Indus is three-fourths of a mile wide, and has from four to five fathoms water.

WRISSA.—A town in the province of Sinde, situated on the west bank of the Indus, 17 miles N. N. E. from Tatta. Lat. 24° 55′ N. long. 68° 25′ E.

MEANNEE.—A fishing village in the province of Sinde, situated about four miles east from Tatta. Lat. 24° 44′ N. long. 58° 21′ E. Opposite to this place the Indus is about a mile wide, and has three fathoms water. Three miles east of this place is another village where the Indus is about a mile and a quarter broad, and continues so for about two miles, after which it becomes narrower, not exceeding three-fourths of a mile wide, with four or five fathoms water.

SONDA.—This town is situated on the road from Tatta to Hyderabad, a short distance from the banks of the Indus. Lat. 24° 58′ N. long. 68° 27′ E. The banks of the river are here low and swampy, and the depth of water about four fathoms. One mile N. N. E. from Sonda the Cooperah hills approach the western bank of the Indus, which winds with a serpentine course, and washes their bases for about two miles in extent.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

JUKAH.—This small town is situated on the brow of a hill, one third of a mile from the Indus, on the road from Tatta to Hyderabad. Lat. 25° N. Opposite to Jukah the breadth of the river is two-thirds of a mile, with five fathoms water.

MAJUR.—By this name is distinguished that large portion of the Tatta province lying to the east of the main trunk of the Indus, and bounded on the east by the Goonee branch of the Indus, continued under various names through the great salt morass, named the Runn, to the sea; and bounded on the south-east by Cutch. Respecting the interior of this geographical division, scarcely any thing is known, the only portion of it explored being that which lies contiguous to the banks of the Goonee from Hyderabad to Alibunder, along which many small villages are scattered with considerable appearances of cultivation and population. The surface is level, and the soil has a strong tendency to the saline, until at the south corner it degenerates into a salt morass.

DUNDAH.—A large village in the province of Sinde, situated on the S. W. bank of the Goonee river. Lat. 24° 58′ N. long. 68° 58′ E. This place stands on the route from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, to Mandavie on the gulph of Cutch, by the river Goonee, which is here one fathom and a half deep, and about 70 yards broad, during the rains. Twelve miles further south it contracts to the breadth of 20 yards, with two fathoms depth. The village is inhabited by a number of weavers, and the surrounding country is well cultivated.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

BEECHIPOOR.—A village in the province of Sinde, on the west banks of the Goonee, on the road from Hyderabad to Mandavie in Cutch. Lat. 24° 35′ N. long. 69° 5′ E.

KHYRPOOR.—A town in the province of Sinde, the residence of Meer Sohrab, one of the Ameers, or princes, of that extensive country. Lat. 24° 55′ N. long. 69° 27′ E. 112 miles E. S. E. from Hyderabad. Khyrpoor is a place of some trade and noted for the dying of cloth.

CUDDAN.—A town subject to the Ameers of Sinde, situated on the route from Hyderabad, their capital, to Luckput Bunder, and afterwards to Mandavie in the gulph of Cutch. Lat. 24° 25′ N. long. 69° 2′ E. Betwixt this place and Luckput Bunder is a plain, over which, in the dry season, there is a good road, but swampy during the rains. The country between Meerpoor and this place is but

little cultivated, being low marshy ground covered with bushes of the lye, and the stream of the Goonee is so narrow and shoal, that it is not navigable further south for boats of any description. The town of Cuddan is small, and contains few inhabitants.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

ALIBUNDER.—A town belonging to the Sinde Ameers, 63 miles E. by S. from the city of Tatta. Lat. 24° 24′ N. long. 69° 13′ E. At this place a small branch of the Goonee river is stopped by a mound of earth, which separates it from the Luckput Bunder river. A great many camels may be procured here for the conveyance of baggage.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

BUBOORARA.—A village in the province of Sinde, situated on the road from Hyderabad to Luckput Bunder, and about 24 miles N. from Luckput Bunder. Lat. 24° 10′ N. long. 69° 2′ E. This place stands on the edge of the Runn, and during the dry season is abandoned by the inhabitants.

SUNKRA.—A district in the Sinde province, situated at its south-western extremity, where it is separated by the Goonee river, here named the Loonee or saline, from the province of Cutch. It is thinly inhabited and exhibits little cultivation, the soil consisting either of a barren sand, or salt morass, in consequence of which it contains no towns or even villages of note.

CHALCHKAUN.

The quarter of Hindostan in which this tract is situated, had until lately been so imperfectly explored, that the whole space comprehended under the above head was supposed to be an uninhabited sandy desert, and marked as such in the best maps. The recent extension however of the British frontier in Gujerat, has unsettled that opinion, it having been ascertained that the country, although of an arid and barren aspect, is not an absolute desert, and that although the soil be in general sandy and destitute of vegetation, yet it contains many cultivated spots, and is interspersed with petty chiefships and stationary tribes, which were probably never even tributary to the Mogul or Patan empires. It appears, however, in the vague geography of Abul Fazel, to have been included in the large soubah or province of Mooltan and district of Tatta. To the north it is bounded by the province of Ajmeer, on the south it is separated from Cutch by a great salt morass named the Runn; to the east it has the province of Gujerat; and to the west the territory of Sinde. It is situated principally between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude.

The most powerful chiefs in this tract of country are the Baloochee Kosahs, who settled here about 35 years ago, and are named Siryes, by the Aborigines of the country. They are a race of sanguinary thieves, who infest the whole of the Parkur district and extend their ravages into the Joudpoor territories. They

are armed with swords, and in general well mounted. They move in numbers from 100 to 500, which force is sufficient to overcome any that the country can collect at a short notice, and by some achievements of desperate valour they have inspired the natives with great terror. Their dress and manner resemble those of the Sindeans. They never cut their hair, but having let it grow to a great length tie it in a knot on the top of their heads. There are 12,000 Baloochees scattered over Dhat, Parkur, and Neyer or that tract of land marked as desert in the old maps. They acknowledge no superior, and subsist by their horses and swords, entering into the service of the different predatory chieftains. Being originally from Sinde, they retain a great affection for their native country, and when one of them dies, his remains are conveyed for interment to that province.

The river, which comes from the Ajmeer province, and under different names such as the Mauroo and Loonee, runs through the Gurrah district, reaches the sea as a salt stream. It is represented as a very small current, quite dry in the cold season, with very low banks. The route across this tract from Rahdunpoor, according to native authorities is as follows;

To Bheelote	3 coss.	To the opposite bank . .	16 coss.
Sonete	4	Bheeranna	2
Morwarra	4	Weerawow	8
Sooeegong	5	Parkur	6
The bank of the Runn	2		—
			50

The road is said to be good the whole of the way. The Runn in this quarter is represented to be a waste sandy tract, destitute of fresh water and vegetation; and in the journey across it, there is no halting place for the whole 16 coss, on account of the total want of drinkable water. Brackish water is found on a tract about six coss in circumference, called Nurrah, situated on the Runn, and covered with jungle, which serves as an asylum for thieves. This space is uninhabited and uncultivated, the soil being the same as that of the Runn, yet the water, such as it is, is found very near the surface. Sooeegong stands near the Runn, which stretches from Arrisur in Wagur, and takes a sweep round Cutch. On crossing the Runn proceeding from Gujerat, the district of Parkur commences.

From Parreenuggur 30 coss west, is situated Islamnagur, in which distance the traveller experiences much difficulty from the sand hills, heat, glare, and want of water, the wells being 8 or 10 coss distant from each other and very deep; their appearance, however, indicates a very considerable duration. Between the two towns abovementioned there are no regular villages, but the Wandyas and Nyras are to be met with in the vicinity of the wells. These are

two migratory hordes, who pasture flocks of goats, cows, and camels as the season suits, and are by caste Soda Rajpoots, but are of late much mixed with Sindean Mahommedans. All over this sandy tract scattered jungle and coarse vegetation of different kinds supply the cattle with food.

Bajeree and moong are the only grain produced, and these only in spots where the sandy soil is a little mixed with clay. Ghee, the produce of their numerous flocks, finds a ready market throughout the whole of Cutch, and principally at Luckput Bunder. The natives eat goat's flesh, and have vegetables of different kinds. Water melons of an excellent quality are produced throughout this parched and arid region, and furnish a most grateful refreshment.

Islamnagur is described by the natives as a strong fort situated in the desert, and destitute of water without the walls. It is upheld by the Sindean Chief Meer Gholaum Ali as a part of a chain of communication across the desert. Twelve coss in a north-west direction from Islamnagur is the fort of Meittah, and 14 coss further that of Kheirpoor, both resembling Islamnagur, and the last only 35 coss from Hyderabad the capital of Sinde. The country north from Parkur, towards Amercote, is called Dhat, and was originally subject to the Soda Raja of Amercote. According to the report of the natives, the distance from

Parkur to Weerawow N. W. is	7 coss.
Rajora N.	22
Koanna N. W.	8
Guddra N. W.	20
Neelwa N.	8
Amercote N. W.	15
	80

Between Weerawow and Rajora there is said to be one well, hills of sand and jungle: at Koanna a well, and at Guddra a tank; the latter the property of a Soda Rajpoot originally from Amercote. Between Koanna and Guddra there are two or three wells; and from Guddra to Neelwa, sand hills and one well. Neelwa belongs half to the Soda and half to the Rhatore Rajpoots. There are three forts in this tract, Kudha, Bulliaree, and Meitu, which lie to the westward of the above route, and are garrisoned by Sindean detachments. This part of the country exhibits little or no cultivation, the inhabitants subsisting on the produce of their numerous flocks of cattle and camels, which are purchased at a low price, and exported to Gujerat.

The district of Dhat includes a subdivision named Raree Rawar, situated immediately on the west border of Marwar, and inhabited solely by Rhatore

Rajpoots. The natives of Dhat are described as being pacifically inclined, possessing few houses, and armed with swords only. They are in consequence compelled to support the Sindean detachments, stationed to preserve them from the depredation of the Kosahs and other Sindean plunderers, who devastate the country.—*(Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

PARKUR.—A town and small district in the geographical division of the Mooltan province named Chalchkaun, situated on the borders of the great salt morass named the Runn. The town stands in lat. 24° 15′ N. long. 70° 40′ E. Proceeding from Gujerat after crossing the Runn, which takes a sweep round the north of Cutch, the Parkur district commences. Sinde begins about 30 coss beyond Pareenuggur, in which, as also in Weerawow, the Sindè Ameers had a party of 15 or 20 men, who levied taxes for their subsistence on the neighbouring zemindars.

This country has been seldom visited by Europeans, but is described by the natives as of a sandy, rocky nature, indifferently supplied with water, and in many respects resembling Hallaur in Gujerat. Cultivation is carried on by means of water procured from wells and tanks. Cloths of various descriptions, and a few horses, are occasionally transported through this district from Sinde to Gujerat; but on account of the insecurity the trade of all sorts is of little amount. The Parkur territory is said to contain from 30 to 40 villages; the capital is Pareenuggur, commonly called Nuggur, and the residence of the Soda Rajpoots.

Pareenuggur in its present state contains only 300 houses, chiefly inhabited by Soda Rajpoots, the ancient population having long abandoned it on account of its turbulence, and migrated for safety to Noanagur and other places. The town is not fortified; the refuge of the inhabitants, when an enemy appears, being a neighbouring mountain, which is represented (but improbably) as rising to a great altitude. This mountain is named Callinjer, and according to the natives may be seen at a considerable distance. It is covered with jungle, and only accessible to those who are acquainted with its secret paths. The principal chieftain in the Parkur district is Poonjajee of Weerawow, whose capital is surrounded by a wall, and contains about 600 inhabitants. His great source of revenue is a celebrated idol which he possesses, named Goreecha, from its having originally come from Gor Bangala, (probably Gour in Bengal). It is carved of white marble, rather more than a cubit in height, in a sitting posture, with his right foot placed on his left knee, his hands clasped, a precious stone of some kind fixed between his eyebrows, and two others in the sockets of his eyes.

At a remote period of history, when Pareenuggur flourished, it was inhabited by numerous bands of Banyans or Shrawuks, (of the Jain religion,) whose temples

were famous for their elegance and sanctity, and resorted to by Shrawuks from every quarter, to pay their devotions at the shrines of Goreecha and Mandow Ray, who were considered as brothers. During the confusion and anarchy that followed the Mahommedan invasions, Mandow Ray fell into the hands of a body of Purmar Rajpoots, who removed him from Parkur to Mooter in Chalawar, where they built a magnificent temple for Mandow Ray, in which he still resides. Goreecha had a harder fate, for during the disorder he was seized on by a Rajpoot family, and concealed in the sand hills, which lie to the north-west of Parkur. Some years afterwards, when the influence of the Mahommedans of Sinde had declined, and the Soda Rajpoots had gained the ascendance, Goreecha emerged from his concealment, and the news of his safety attracted Shrawuks from every region to pay their devotions to him; for permission to do which, the possessor demanded a heavy fine, which the Banyans consented to pay. Subsequent to this period the idol past from hand to hand, and is at present in the possession of Poonjajee of Weerawow, whose grandfather, Suttajee, stole him from a Rajpoot of Pareenuggur.

The pilgrimages to this Hindoo deity are made in caravans of many thousand persons, who have agents at Rahdunpoor, who settle beforehand with the different [illegible] chiefs for a safe conveyance to the spot where the idol is to be seen. [illegible] then dug out of the sand, and placed under a guard of Rajpoots with drawn sabres, while the pilgrims perform their worship, and make offerings in proportion to their circumstances. These gifts are deposited in a large chest, and afterwards divided between the Soda Raja and his attendants. Numerous fees are exacted during the ceremonies, and are paid with extraordinary liberality by the votaries, who are on all other occasions a most parsimonious race.

After the customary solemnities have continued for a few days, the image is privately removed, and parties of horsemen gallop off in every direction, one of whom has charge of the idol, whose actual place of concealment is known only to a few very confidential persons. In 1809, one party, or sungh, as it is called, from Surat, amounted to 9,000, besides pilgrims expected from other quarters, the whole being computed at 70,000 persons, who were to assemble at Morwarra, where the ceremony would be performed. The Raja who possesses this stone frequently anticipates his revenue, and mortgages the approaching fees and offerings expected to be realized, for so large a sum as a lack and a half of rupees. Besides the sums levied at the place of worship, all the adjacent towns and chiefs extort contributions from these pious devotees, who, owing to their immense numbers, suffer besides many hardships in this barren region.

The desert to the north of Parkur is occupied by many migratory tribes, the

principal of which are the Kozas, who have led a predatory life ever since the expulsion of the Abassy family from the throne of Sinde. These Kozas are a tribe of Baloochees, renowned for their restless propensities as well as courage; and nothing can more strongly prove the security of their present retreats in the desert than the fact, that the Talpoories (the reigning family of Sinde), although urged by every incentive both of revenge and self-preservation, have not only been unable to extirpate the Kozas, but obliged to conciliate their forbearance. The occupations of this tribe are chiefly pastoral, such as rearing cattle, camels, and horses, so that when a plundering harvest presents itself, the means of rapid transport are always at hand. In 1816, a party of robbers from Parkur plundered some carts while crossing the Runn from Mallia. The Bombay presidency considering that town to be a dependency of Sinde, and the key of that country, addressed a letter of remonstrance to the Ameers, who in reply stated that so far from affording them protection, they would most willingly dispatch a force to aid in effecting their extirpation. The remote haunts of these plunderers place them beyond the reach of a British regular force; and [illegible]ached, unless the object could be fully and completely obtained, the [illegible] nitely augmented. Under these circumstances it appears [illegible] their incursions when they occur, rather than to attempt to [illegible] make them the subject of serious discussion with any of the [illegible] powers.—*(Macmurdo, Carnac, &c. &c.)*

THE PROVINCE OF CUTCH.

(CACH'HA, A MORASS.)

THIS province is principally situated between the 24th and 25th degrees of north latitude, and consists of two portions; one an immense salt morass, described hereafter, and named the Runn; the other an irregular hilly portion completely insulated by the Runn and the sea. To the north it is bounded by the sandy district of Chalchkaun; on the south by the gulf of Cutch and the Indian Ocean; to the east it has the province of Gujerat, and to the west that of Sinde. Including the Runn it may be estimated at 140 miles in length, by 95 the average breadth. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:

"To the west of Gujerat is a very large separate territory, called Cutch, the length of which is 250 coss, and the breadth 100 coss. The territory of Sinde lies to the west of Cutch. The greatest part of Cutch is composed of woods and uncultivated sands. The horses are fine, and supposed to be of Arabian extraction, and the camels and goats are also remarkably good. The capital city is Tahej, which has two strong forts, Jhareh and Kunkote."

It will be seen from the above statement that the real limits of the province are greatly exaggerated, indeed there is reason to suppose that, when Abul Fazel wrote, this portion of Hindostan was completely unexplored, as he does not even include it among the tributaries of his master Acber, which he was usually accustomed to do on very slender grounds. Nor was it until a very recent period (1809), when political events brought the British territories nearly in contact with this insulated region, that any accurate information was gained respecting the tribes by which it is inhabited; and even at the present its statistics have been but very imperfectly reported on, although its geographical position be one of the most singular in the world. The hilly portion of Cutch (which may be distinguished by the name of Cutch Proper) is by no means deficient either in fertility or verdure, and is sufficiently productive where the nature of the government permits the cultivator to enjoy the fruits of his labour. Throughout the interior it is studded with hills of considerable elevation, mostly covered with jungle, where the petty chiefs erect their strong holds and dens,

and from whence they look down on, protect, or plunder the intervening vallies. The principal towns are Bhooj, Mandavie, Anjar, Jharrah, Kuntcote, and Kuttaria. There are many mountain streams, but no navigable rivers, and all along the coast of the Runn the wells and springs are more or less impregnated with common salt, and other saline ingredients.

The soil of this province being cold, poor, and sterile, the rains generally scanty, and always uncertain, Cutch has never been able to produce a sufficiency for its own consumption. The three crops, therefore, that are produced by irrigated land, have always been considered the most material part of the cultivation, and it is remarkable, that in the late distressing years of famine, such villages as had the advantage of wells, suffered much less than those without them. Water, which is everywhere scarce throughout Cutch, is chiefly found at the bottom of low ranges of hills, which abound in some parts; but the inhabitants of the extensive sandy tracts suffer greatly from the want of it. The village of Rutnal, and three others under the British jurisdiction, during March, April, May, and June of 1816, had not a drop of water near [illegible] miles; and during the whole of the above four months no water was [illegible] on Anjar and Bhooj, a distance of 24 miles. Iron and coal have been found in Cutch; the latter on the surface of the ground, but it does not appear to be in general use as fuel.

The town best known to Europeans is Bhooj, which is situated [illegible] the chief sea ports are Mandavie and Mundrah. The principal export [illegible] to Bombay, also some ghee and occasionally grain; the articles imported are sugar, pepper, raw silk, and piece goods. The cotton produced in Cutch is reckoned of an inferior quality. The exports from Cutch to Sinde are cotton, snuff, unwrought iron procured in Cutch, and the small Arabian aloe. The Mandavie merchants are at present the only opulent class of persons in Cutch.

The native chiefs of Cutch have long been accustomed to boast of their independence, and pretend that since the foundation of the world they have never been conquered, and certainly few countries in Asia possess greater resources for defensive warfare, or greater capabilities for obstructing the progress of an invading army. At present almost every village is fortified, and some of the fortifications are respectable. But however contemptible they may appear to a regular army and artillery train, they present most formidable, and almost insurmountable obstacles to troops unprovided with heavy guns, and unskilled in their management. These causes have hitherto preserved the independence of Cutch against the contiguous native powers, and it is probable its complete conquest will never be effected but by a series of protracted operations,

to which an undisciplined army is incompetent. In addition to the more common means of defence, Cutch has some peculiar to itself, being for several months of the year wholly inaccessible to an invading army from the westward. The Runn or Bunnee, which extends from Luckput Bunder to the frontiers of Gujerat, varies in breadth from six to 16 coss, and from the commencement to the breaking up of the rains is nearly impassable for single horsemen. From the sea, however, it is open to invasion, or to the receipt of re-inforcements, at all seasons of the year. In 1809 the following Jarajahs, or chiefs, with their forces, were enumerated within this petty territory:—

Visajee, chief of Rooah, a strong fort, independent, could bring 1000 men into the field.

Pradjee, chief of Mauh, a small fort . .	250 men.
Jarejahs Cacabhy, and Ruttonjee of Moutarra	500
Dewajee of Pera	700
Sandan Koonderjee	400
Meranjee of Serteree	300
Sangajee of Syarah	250
Meranjee Bhawajee of Salran	250
Atterjee Kidjee of Kothree	350
Keswajee of Nagureha	300
Dosajee of Godra	250
Mallajee of Lyja	250
Jarejah Hamerjee of Vinjam	250
Bhutta Loll Mega, a Mahommedan . . .	300
Jarejah Jessajee of Juthree	250
Kallajee of Dhon	200
Lackajee of Assumla	300
Verajee of Phradya	200
Abherjee of Bajrajee	200
Dhadjee of Juggoor	200
Jeehajee of Puttree	200
Bhawajee of Ruttalia	200
Kuntcote, Roopoor and Wandia can produce	1500
Maundra, belonging to Momen Sah . . .	400
Dedeh Moojee of Shesesagur	200
Jarejah Assalcajee of Nurrah	150
	8100

Besides the above, there were many small forts and fortified villages, belonging

to different Bhyauds (brotherhoods or clans), and the forces of Futteh Mahommed, the Jemadar of Cutch, were estimated at

Arabs	1000
Sindeans	1200
Pundshikee and Cutch people	3000
	——5200, of which number 1500 were horse.

In addition to these the caste of Meannies, a species of hereditary militia, were supposed capable of producing 1000, and the district of Puchum 5000 horse and foot.

The practice of female infanticide, formerly so prevalent in the Gujerat peninsula, has long been customary in this province, and for want of a sufficient influence on the part of the British government, it is to be feared still continues. Prior to 1808, one account reckoned that 2000 female infants were annually destroyed by the Jarejah tribes, while another raised the number to 8000. At that period the Jarejah fraternity of Cutch, could easily have overturned the usurped authority of Futteh Mahommed the Jemadar; but they submitted to it from the consideration that they thereby obtained a sanction to their own power and illegal acquisitions. On this account he was afraid to compromise any of the Jarejah privileges, and they considered the practice of female infanticide as one of the most important. But the zeal of this person (Futteh Mahommed) did not stop here; for although wholly illiterate, having risen from the humble station of a goat herd, and a Mahommedan by religion, yet he sent Colonel Walker a most inflated and elaborate written defence of the practice of female infanticide.

The Cutchies are naturally martial, and when left to themselves much exercised in predatory warfare; but as the British influence extends, they are gradually, though unwillingly, adopting more pacific habits. Most of these turbulent tribes claim a Rajpoot origin; some have wholly, and many partially, been converted to the Mahommedan faith, which continues so progressive in this quarter of India, that another century would have probably seen the extinction of the Hindoo. Among their neighbours the Cutchies have the character of being treacherous, an opinion which seems to have arisen from Row Bhara of Bhooj having delivered up Muzuffer, the last Sultan of Gujerat, to his enemies. When a reconciliation is effected, the parties drink of a potion named cassoomba, which is considered as the lethe of enmity among the Rajpoots of Cutch and Cattywar. A translation of the Lord's prayer into the Cutch language, when examined by the missionaries, was found to contain 24 words out of 32 radically the same as the Hindostany and Bengalese specimens. Compared with the western or southern Sindee dialect, or with that of Ooch, the difference, as heard in conversation, is very consi-

derable. There is a Vurrun Sunker tribe settled in Cutch, and also in various parts of Gujerat and the Deccan, whose modern occupation consists chiefly in selling milk and day labouring. Although of so low a caste they wear the Janooee, or distinguishing string of the higher tribes of Hindoos, and pretend to be descended from the Khetri or military caste. On the south coast of Cutch along the sea coast, the inhabitants practised piracy as a regular profession, and a particular tribe, named the Saganians, cruized for merchant vessels a considerable distance from their own shores; but these, like the neighbouring sea plunderers of the Gujerat peninsula, have recently been effectually suppressed.

About A. D. 1450, Khengur, then one of the Sovereigns of Cutch, in gratitude to the Meannies, who had been instrumental in saving him from destruction, granted them a licence to plunder with impunity, which to this day is so respected by the chiefs of his family, that a Meannie is only obliged to restore the plundered property, but never subjected to fine or corporeal punishment. In later times, however, this predatory commission has been found so inconvenient, that the government of Cutch, rather than infringe the licence, have recourse to an indirect method of procuring castigation, by requesting the neighbouring chieftains to execute it, who are not restrained by an hereditary obligation.

The ancient history of Cutch cannot be expected to be particularly minute or satisfactory, as although so near to Bombay, it has, until within these few years, been an unknown land. Rar Lucka, a Raja of Cutch, is supposed to have lived about 1010 of the Sumbut, or A. D. 1054. Abras, another Raja of Cutch, celebrated for his long beard, was slain by Sultan Allah ud Deen Ghori, when he overrun the whole of western India. When Abul Fazel wrote, the province appears to have been independent, and totally unconnected with the general politics of Hindostan. The modern authentic history of this province commences in 1795, when, according to native accounts, the existing Raja was imprisoned by his prime minister, Deo Chund Loanna, in conjunction with one of his wives, who continued to officiate as chief functionary until the young Raja came of age, when he put to death the minister and sixty of his family.

This Raja, who appears to have been always insane, persecuted the Banyans, built a mosque, appointed Crossa Beg, a Mahommedan, prime minister, from among the adherents of which faith he also selected a wife, repudiating his Rajpoot spouses, and finally crowned his apostacy by killing a cow. Some time afterwards Crossa Beg died, and was succeeded as dewan or premier, by Dossulvene, in whose employ Futteh Mahommed then served as a private sepoy, but was subsequently promoted to the rank of Jemadar. This commander, soon discovering his own abilities and importance, acquired a leading influence among the military, and overawed the Raja, whose mental derangement continued.

The Raja's uncle was appointed Regent, but the efficient power remained with the Jemadar. The Regent died in 1801, and his son was considered the legitimate heir, the reigning prince having no progeny, except a son by a Mahommedan concubine, who was declared illegitimate by the Jahrejahs of the country, who in consequence of the prevailing anarchy threw off all dependence on the state of Bhooj, the capital of Cutch, and exercised all the functions of sovereignty each in his petty state. Before this dissolution of the Cutch government, the revenues accruing to the Raja were estimated at ten lacks of rupees per annum.

In 1802, Captain Seton was dispatched from Bombay as ambassador to the state of Cutch, but his mission was attended with no satisfactory result, on account of the unsettled state of its political condition. In 1809, Captain Greenwood was deputed from the same presidency to Futteh Mahommed of Bhooj, the real chief, 55 years of age, and a man of vigour and capacity. The legitimate ostensible sovereign was Maha Row Raja Raidhun, an idiot, and sort of pageant to the Jemadar. On this occasion the points which the envoy was instructed to attain were, the exclusion of all foreign and European power from Cutch; the relinquishment of all pretensions, on the part of Futteh Mahommed, to interfere with the affairs of the Gujerat peninsula (Cattywar), and the suppression of piracy, the whole of which were at the time thought to have been substantially effected. The forces which the Jemadar had then collected for the invasion of Hallaur, on the opposite side of the Runn, amounted to 12,000 men, of every sort, assembled by the hopes of plunder; in addition to which he possessed a few field pieces and two European deserters. Soon after this event, the Ameers of Sinde, who had long been encroaching on the territories of Cutch, appeared to meditate its entire reduction, in which event the British frontier in that quarter, instead of being defended by a nation of Rajpoots (who entertained no ambition of conquest themselves, although tenacious in self defence), would be exposed to invasion from the restless people of Sinde, to the constant danger of public tranquillity, and great detriment of the Company's finances. To avert these evils a negociation was commenced with the rulers both of Cutch and Sinde, and the latter being informed that the British government would not tolerate any projects against the independence of Cutch, they suspended or relinquished their ambitious views against that principality.

On the 23d April, 1813, Futteh Mahommed crossed the Runn, and established a military post at a place called Sautulpoor, to the eastward of the gulf of Cutch, which he was afterwards compelled to abandon; and on the 16th of next October this chief terminated his turbulent life, leaving several sons by different wives, one of whom, named Hossein Meya, managed to usurp a con-

siderable portion of his father's power and property. Row Raidhun, the old and insane Raja, survived his prime minister but a few days, as he also died on the 6th of next November. For some time previous to the death of Futteh Mahommed, owing to a habit of intoxication, he had scarcely been able to attend to business, the direction of public affairs had in consequence devolved on his confidential servant Jugjevan, a Brahmin, who had thus an opportunity of acquiring an influence over the army. The late Raja had long declared himself a Mahommedan, which sect were preparing to inter the body, but the Jahrejahs and other Hindoos, considering it an insult to their religion, proceeded to the palace, led by Jugjevan, and conveyed the body to the usual spot, where it was, with the customary ceremonies, committed to the flames. Many other broils ensued between the two factions, and much bloodshed; Jugjevan, with several of his family, having been assassinated at the instigation of Hossein Meya and his brother Ibrahim, a youth of a tyrannical and sanguinary disposition, who was himself soon after destroyed by a party adverse to the domination of the late Futteh Mahommed's descendants. Hossein Meya, although nominally at the head of affairs, possessed in fact very little authority, the Arabs in his employ having usurped nearly all the power; while the chief of Mandavie, and others, were in open opposition to him. In the mean time the depredations from Wagur were carried on with increased activity, so that notwithstanding the anxiety of the British government, both at home and abroad, to avoid getting entangled with the politics of Cutch, the progress of events was such as no longer to permit their neutrality.

Colonel East, of the Bombay military establishment, who had been employed with a force in regulating the affairs of Noanagur, was in consequence recalled from that service, and intrusted with the conducting of the operations in Cutch. His detachment amounted to 7070 men (including 1733 Europeans), in addition to which he was joined by 3500 of the Guicowar's troops, making altogether a force of 10,570 men. With this most respectable force Colonel East crossed the Runn on the 5th of November, 1815, and on the 17th December, when within three days march of Bhooj, envoys arrived in his camp from that capital, upon which it was his intention to move; but on discovering a bag containing a mixture of wheat and arsenic in the tank from whence the troops were to have drawn their water, and being informed that all the wells and tanks on the road to Bhooj had been poisoned in a similar manner, he directed his march against the fort of Anjar, then in the occupation of Hossein Meya, which surrendered after a practicable breach had been nearly effected. The force then proceeded against Bhooj, and when within five miles of it, vakeels arrived in camp, and it being ascertained that the wishes of the several Jahrejah chiefs were unanimous

in favour of Row Bharmaljee, (the illegitimate son of the late Raja,) the negociations were commenced with that chieftain, and a treaty of alliance concluded on the 14th January, 1816. By the conditions of this engagement, the Row undertook to make good the losses sustained by the chieftains of Cattywar from predatory incursions, amounting to eight lacks of rupees, and also to reimburse the expenses of the expedition, altogether amounting to 20 lacks. He rendered himself responsible for the future good conduct of his subjects, agreed to disband the Arab mercenaries except 400, and fixed the Runn and gulf of Cutch as the eastern boundaries of his principality. He ceded in perpetuity the fort of Anjar and its dependencies, estimated at a lack of rupees per annum; and agreed to pay in perpetuity 65,000 rupees per annum, which sum was afterwards voluntarily relinquished by the British government, as also nearly the whole of the sum awarded for the expenses of the campaign, which liberality made a strong impression on the chiefs and people of Cutch. The British government on their part undertook to cooperate with the Raja in recovering such parts of his dominions as had at different times been alienated by treachery, and also to abstain from murdering cows and bullocks within the limits of the Cutch jurisdiction. It was mutually agreed, that neither state should afford an asylum to plunderers, and, in order to secure the observance of these several stipulations, the Raja consented to allow a British agent to reside constantly at his court, towards whose expenses he even offered to contribute. On this occasion the impaired power of the Row was made a pretext for paying no attention to the representations of the Bombay presidency on the subject of female infanticide; in the suppression of which so little progress had been made, that in 1816, the resident at Baroda distinctly reported its abolition in Cutch had not been effected. The urgent remonstrances made during the life time of the Jemadar Futteh Mahommed, and subsequently to the Row and his ministers, had proved unavailing; the first declaring that an interference with the religious prejudices of the country was incompatible with the precarious tenure of his power; the last, that owing to the turbulence and internal commotions of Cutch, it was wholly beyond their ability.

In 1814, the Peshwa, who, according to a Maharatta maxim of long standing, claimed every thing, asserted a jurisdiction over, and endeavoured to exact as far as his feeble means went, a tribute from this province, although it was notorious, that the Row of Cutch was no more under the controul of the Peshwa, than was the Nabob of the Carnatic, from whom the Maharattas formerly extorted tribute. The independence maintained by Cutch through a series of centuries, although situated between powerful and ambitious empires, is a proof that it was known to contain nothing to gratify ambition, or to compen-

sate for the expense of its conquest, which would be aggravated by the time necessary for the reduction of the innumerable little fortresses with which it is studded. On this account it is rather desirable that it should remain a barrier between the British possessions, and those of the Ameers of Sinde, as it possesses no manufactures, and if subjugated could afford no revenue equal to the charge of defending it, and maintaining tranquillity among the innumerable clans and brotherhoods.

Providence, however, seems to have decreed that the connexion of the British government with Cutch shall be as intimate as with any other province of Hindostan; for in 1818, the new Row, so recently placed on the throne, whether from hereditary insanity or the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, murdered his cousin Ladhooba, the nephew of the late Row, and assembled a hostile force of 5000 troops between Bhooj and Anjar, interdicting his subjects all intercourse with the latter. In the mean time the widow of Ladhooba was delivered of a son, and as the Row appeared utterly incapable of governing, it was determined to depose him and place his legitimate successor on the throne. A detachment under Sir William Kier was in consequence marched against him, which on the 26th of March, 1819, in the course of a few hours took his fort of Bhooj by escalade, where two subsidiary battalions were left to preserve order, until the arrangements meditated could be completed.

These internal broils, combined with a famine and pestilence by which this unfortunate country has been visited, have greatly obstructed the cultivation, and thinned the inhabitants, many of whom have been induced to emigrate to Bombay and Gujerat. On the 16th June, 1819, an additional calamity befel the province, an uncommonly violent earthquake having on that day nearly destroyed Bhooj its capital, and greatly injured the towns of Anjar, Mandavie, and Moondria.—*(Col. A. Walker, Public MS. Documents, Capt. Macmurdo, Capt. Seton, Rennell, Maxfield, &c. &c. &c.)*.

THE RUNN,

(or Erun, a morass, backwater, or waste, also a field of battle).

A very extensive salt morass, which bounds the west frontier of the Gujerat province, communicates with the gulf of Cutch, and sweeps round the northern side of that province, which, during the height of the rains, it insulates, and at other times exhibits a great variety of appearances. In some places it is a widely extended sheet of shallow water, only a few inches deep, in others an impassable salt swamp, elsewhere a dry unproductive bank of sand, in some places covered for miles with a salt incrustation, and in others affording pasturage,

and susceptible of cultivation; but every where strongly impregnated with saline particles, adverse to vegetation. The total superficies of this immense morass may be estimated at 8000 square miles, without including any portion of the gulf of Cutch, which is in many parts so shallow as more to resemble a marshy fen than an arm of the sea. In its greatest extent the Runn is connected with the gulf of Cutch on the west, and the gulf of Cambay on the east, these two divisions being united during the monsoon, forming the Gujerat peninsula into an island, the access to which, however, is never entirely cut off.

The Runn, or Bunnee, from west to east, stretches from Luckput Bunder to the frontiers of Gujerat, and varies in its breadth from 5 to 80 miles across; but from the commencement to the breaking up of the rains is nearly impassable for single horsemen. It is said to be formed by the overflow of the river Puddar, and the gulf of Cutch, during the monsoon; but in December, between Mallia and Anjar it is quite dry, and in most places hard. Seen from the Cattywar coast, the Runn presents a singularly wild appearance, bounded in the extreme horizon by the hills of Wagur, having the appearance of an arm of the sea, from which, owing to some convulsion, the ocean had receded, or the dry bed of an immense river. It is throughout a dead flat, and in most parts, especially near Mallia, totally devoid of verdure and vegetation. In this quarter, as far as the eye can reach, a mixture of earthy sand, covered with a thin lamina of salt mud, presents a dreary view. In different parts small insulated quick sands are seen, having in the middle a saline streak and incrustation of about 100 yards extent, and for a considerable distance on both sides, the surface is strewed with thousands of prawns, mullets, and other fish. Tracts of large birds are also seen, and on the Cutch side, apes and porcupines.

On approaching the opposite side the incrustration of salt is so thick, as to have the appearance of snow; in other quarters it is said to extend the whole way across at particular seasons, presenting many singular optical deceptions, from the reflection and refraction of the sun's rays. The little saline shrubs and bushes are magnified to the size of lofty forest trees, waving, separating, and uniting again; armies seem to march over the flat; castles and fortifications rise, disappear, and reappear in the salt bed of the morass. Under the saline crust, the ground in some places is soft and moist, in others dry and firm. The distance across the Runn, where the detachment marched in 1816 is exactly 10¼ miles from shore to shore; the dragoons reached the opposite bank in two hours and three quarters, and the European infantry in three hours and a half. The country on the northern bank in Wagur is much more pleasing to the eye than that of the south side. In that district a kind of marle, or limestone, extends on the northern side to the verge of the inundation. The nullahs, or water courses,

leading into the Runn, have quick sands in their beds, which are also impregnated with salt, so that fresh water cannot be had on the Cutch side except at a considerable distance from the bank. On the north side, the Runn was crossed by the embassy returning from Sinde in 1809, where its extreme breadth was probably about 60 miles, but the country was in few places an absolute morass, on the contrary, many places exhibited both pasturage and scanty cultivation; but every thing in this tract has a tendency to the saline.

The banks of the Runn are much frequented by that curious animal, the wild ass, which is seen in herds of 60 and 70 at a time. This ass is larger than in its tame state; the body of an ashe colour, changing to a dirty white under the belly, and is upon the whole a larger and stronger animal than when domesticated. It is extremely watchful and difficult to catch. It breeds on the banks of the Runn, and on the salt islands in the centre of that tract, where it browzes on the brackish and stunted vegetation of the desert. In November and December it advances into the country and ravages the grain fields. This animal has been sometimes caught in pits, but has always been found fierce and untameable, biting and kicking in the most ferocious manner, accompanied by an angry snorting, which appears to be its only voice. Their flesh is esteemed good eating by the natives, who lie in wait for them near their drinking places.

The whole of the extensive space occupied by this immense morass, appears at some remote period to have been covered with the waters of the ocean, which have since subsided, and are still imperceptibly draining off; yet by the natives it is said to be annually and visibly increasing on the west side, where it joins the gulf. According to a tradition still current, the voice of a man could at one time be heard from Cutch to Cattywar; and opposite to Joria, now a sea-port, there was formerly a foot path at low water, but the truth of this cannot be substantiated by any records now extant. The natives assert, that during the great earthquake of the 16th of June, 1819, that portion of the Runn situated between the main land of Cutch, and the insulated district of Kowrah, was suddenly covered with a sheet of water, two feet in depth, for an extent of six miles in breadth (the length from east to west unknown), which in a few hours subsided to about half the above depth, and next day had nearly disappeared.—*(Public Journals, Colonel Walker, Captain Macmurdo, &c. &c. &c.)*

BHOOJ *(Bhuj)*.—The capital of Cutch, and residence of the Row and his jemadar, Futteh Mahommed. Lat. 23° 15′ N. long. 69° 52′ E. This is a strong, but irregular fortress, consisting of a curtain flanked by round and square towers, extremely well built of stone and lime. The walls are high and of great thickness, and it is said to be well provided with artillery of a heavy calibre. To the eastward it is protected by a strong and high hill fort, called Bhoojea. The

streets of Bhooj are faced by the high stone walls of the enclosures of the dwelling houses, the entrances into which are seldom towards the streets, but in angular recesses, or in lanes. The streets turn suddenly at sharp angles. The houses are in the centre of the enclosures, terraced, and provided with loop holes, so that each dwelling is, in a manner, a separate fortification, and generally enfilades the streets and approaches. The loss in storming a town of this description would be very great, where every house is a fort, and where in such an exigence every inhabitant would be a soldier.

On the 26th of March, 1819, the hill fort of Bhooj was taken by escalade by a detachment under Sir William Kier; and on the 16th of June, both town and fort were nearly destroyed by an uncommonly violent earthquake.

MUNDRAJI.—A sea-port town in the province of Cutch, 32 miles south from Bhooj. Lat. 22° 47′ N. long. 69° 55′ E.

MANDAVIE *(or Muddi)*.—This is the principal sea-port of Cutch, situated on the sea coast, about 35 miles S. S. W. from Bhooj, the capital. Lat. 22° 50′ N. long. 69° 33′ E. It possesses an excellent harbour, and is a place of considerable trade with Sinde, Arabia, and Africa; in these respects being equalled by few native marts in this quarter of Hindostan, but it possesses few manufactures and none of importance.

In 1809, Hans Raja, the chieftain of Mandavie, and who styled himself the Dewan of Cutch, being invaded by Futteh Mahommed, the Jemadar of Bhooj, threw himself on the British protection, and agreed to receive and maintain a resident at his capital; but dying just as the negociations were concluded, his son and successor declined receiving the resident, and seemed much inclined to evade the execution of the treaty in its most essential articles. Being soon after attacked by Futteh Mahommed, he changed his note, and implored the intervention of the Bombay government, which, forgetting his recent tergiversation, interfered to protect him, and arbitrated the differences between the two chiefs, which being amicably adjusted, Futteh Mahommed returned to his capital.—*(Public MS. Documents, Captain Archibald Robinson, Colonel Walker, &c. &c.)*

SUBROY.—A small town situated on the road from Luckput Bunder to Mandavie, on the gulf of Cutch, from which place it is distant 23 miles to the north-west. It stands on a rising ground, and is defended by a small castle. It has the appearance from without of being populous, and the surrounding country is tolerably well cultivated.

VEERGOON.—A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, about 30 miles N. W. from Mandavie.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

LUCKPUT BUNDER.—A town in the province of Cutch, situated on a salt

creek, or river, which communicates with the sea, but navigable only for small vessels. Lat. 23° 47′ N. long. 68° 56′ E. 75 miles W. N. W. from Bhooj. The fort of Luckput Bunder stands on the western brow of a hill, which rises from a swampy plain, about a mile and a half from the Luckput Bunder river, named the Lonee. In figure it is an irregular polygon, defended by round towers, and built of hard brown stone. The eastern side is flanked by a hill of the same material, and containing a large tank, which becomes dry towards the end of March. There are several other tanks within the fort, but the water is not reckoned good.

The walls of this fortress are of considerable height, but not thick, and there are only six pieces of artillery mounted on the works. To the westward of the principal gate a wall divides the inside of the fort into two parts, the western only being inhabited. It is not supposed to contain more than 2000 inhabitants, of whom 500 are sepoys; and it is at present a place of little trade. It is, nevertheless, the principal town on the road from Hyderabad, the capital of Sinde, to Mandavie, the chief sea-port of Cutch. The most convenient time for performing this journey is during the months of July and August, when the creeks are navigable for flat-bottomed boats to Ali Bunder, where a small neck of land separates the fresh water from the salt water creek, over which isthmus the boats are easily carried. In 1809, Mohin Meya, an Asiatic Turk, who commanded the garrison, expelled the agents of Hans Raja of Mandavie, whose servant he was, and assumed the government on his own account.—*(Captain Maxfield, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

MER.—This town is situated about 15 miles south from Luckput Bunder, on the route from that place to Mandavie, in the gulf of Catch. Lat. 23° 32′ N.

OMEERSEER.—A village in the Cutch province, situated about four miles south from Luckput Bunder. Lat. 23° 43′ N.

KORAH.—A village in Cutch, situated about 10 miles S. from Luckput Bunder, on the road from that place to Mandavie, on the gulf of Cutch. The surrounding country is very hilly, and yields large quantities of iron ore. Near the village are two or three furnaces for smelting it.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

JHARRAH.—A town in the province of Cutch, 53 miles N. W. from Bhooj, the capital. Lat. 23° 40′ N. long. 69° 9′ E.

TAHRAH —A town and fortress in the province of Cutch, situated about 30 miles S. E. from Luckput Bunder, on the road from that place to Mandavie. The fort is an irregular building, defended by round towers, flanked by a large tank on each side; the town on the south, and the suburbs on the west. The inhabitants are numerous, and principally Hindoos. The surrounding country is well cultivated, and the soil a heavy sandy loam.—*(Maxfield, &c.)*

ANJAR.—A small district in the province of Cutch, ceded to the British government in 1816, and governed by a commissioner deputed from the Bombay presidency. As the motives which led to the establishment of the British authority in Cutch, were of a political more than a fiscal nature, the revenue system has been conducted at Anjar on the most liberal principles; the object being merely to raise as much as will defray the immediate expense of its own protection. Water is the great deficiency, and in many parts the soil is so loose and sandy as to be unfit for tanks. In some parts, wells have been tried without success, whilst in others the poverty of the inhabitants has precluded the attempt. The expense of sinking wells differs according to the soil and depth where water is found. A well cut in rock, with water at 15 cubits, can be dug at an expense of 112 rupees; and generally speaking, the depth at which water is found in the Anjar pergunnah, does not exceed 23 cubits. There are some villages, however, where it is much deeper, and others where the research is hopeless. Of the first description is the village of Kokra; of the second Rappoor, Rutnal, and Kharee Rohur. Rutnal is one of the largest villages in the district, and Rohur is a sea-port; yet both are destitute of water.

Throughout the eastern portion of Cutch, the lands are considered the property of the cultivator, who has the power of selling them for his own benefit, under a reservation of the government bhog, or share of the produce. The bhoota, or land, is therefore the property of the Ryot; and the bhog, or customary revenue, only, that of the state. This subdivision of the property in the soil is coeval with the establishment of the jarejahs in Cutch. The lands, or warrees, rendered productive through the means of irrigation, are divided into three kinds. 1st. the Bhogettee lands, paying revenue. 2d. the Passaita, or grants to individuals by government of its bhog, or share of the produce. 3d. the Peerannee lands, the property of religious establishments, although now mortgaged to cultivators. These Peerannee lands were originally granted by a Row of Cutch, about 100 years ago, to a Gossain, who in Cutch is called a Peer, for the benefit of the temple at Anjar; but at present not one acre remains to the saint: bad management on the one hand, and cunning on the other, having transferred the property to Banyans and merchants, under various deeds of mortgage, from which the peer is not able to extricate himself. The late Jemadar, Futteh Mahommed, was in the habit of making a convenience of this sanctuary, for by displacing one pontiff from the Guddee, and elevating another, he realized about as much as was in other shapes abstracted by them from the revenue.

Out of 201 wells in the pergunnah, used for irrigation, 66 pay no revenue to government; and these free warrees, especially in Anjar, yield one third more

than those from which government derives an income. The very great scarcity of water in Cutch, has given rise to a singular custom; according to which, any person who chooses to sink a well for irrigation, is at liberty to do so on any spot of ground he pleases, and on the completion of the undertaking he becomes entitled to the whole of the land which the well may irrigate. The commerce of Anjar is divided into foreign, called Sufferee, which comprehends the ports of Cutch to the westward of Juggeth point; and the home, or Baree, which includes the ports situated within the gulf to the eastward of Juggeth point. Owing to the long subsisting anarchy, its amount is as yet inconsiderable, but short as the time has been, the effects of a mild government are already visible, from the cessation of the customary depredations, and the perfect state of tranquillity which Wagur, formerly the asylum of robbers, has recently experienced; in consequence of which, various applications have been made to the commissioner (Captain Macmurdo) by the peasantry, for permission to extend the cultivation. Some have been granted, and in cases where lands have been lying untilled for a number of years, the government share of the produce has been limited to one-eighth for the first year, and one sixth for the second: after which they are to be regularly assessed like the other lands. With a view to their further improvement, the Bombay government meditate the construction of several tanks, which can be done for 1000 rupees each, and intend to consolidate and simplify the customs and port duties, which as they now stand, present a most perplexing number and variety of imposts.—*(Macmurdo, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

ANJAR.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on the side of a hill nearly ten miles from the gulf of Cutch; the bunder, or fort, being Toonea, which is fronted by a creek of the gulf. Lat. 23° 3′ N. long. 70° 11′ E. The fortifications of Anjar form a polygon, but are not strong; the wall being without a ditch, only 16 feet high, and six in thickness. It surrendered in 1816, to Colonel East's detachment, after a breach had been effected, when 36 guns of different sizes were found mounted, from two to 12 pounders. The garrison consisted of 300 Arabs; and the town, which is two miles in circumference, then appeared flourishing; being encompassed by gardens and cultivated fields The inhabitants are fair and well looking. In the month of December, the thermometer was found to sink to 50° of Fahrenheit.—*(Public Journals, &c. &c.)*

ROHUR.—This is the principal sea-port of the Anjar pergunnah, and is situated on the gulf of Cutch, about 12 miles E. by S. from Anjar town. The distance from Wowamia, on the opposite coast of the Gujerat peninsula, is 30 miles; and the passage is generally performed in two tides. The depth of water is seldom more than four feet, and the vessels are consequently small; but the

great saving of land carriage, and the safety of the passage lead the merchants to prefer this route. The port of Rohur on the west side is capable of receiving vessels of 200 candies burthen, but from the eastward, or the Wowamia side, the water as already stated is extremely shallow. It has, however, a hard sandy beach, on which carts can proceed at low water close to the vessels, and receive their cargoes. There is a small fort here fast going to ruin, but which is of importance to secure merchandize during the night from the Meyanna robbers, who infest the banks of the Runn.

About 1810, this small port yielded a revenue of 90,000 kories (four to the rupee) or 22,500 rupees, on goods brought annually from Jhallawar in the Gujerat peninsula: This large revenue subsequently disappeared owing to the insecure state of the country under the late Jemadar Futteh Mahommed; but there is every reason to expect that with the operation of time and a steady government, the trade will revert to its former channel. The want of fresh water for more than two miles from Rohur, will always have a material effect in checking its prosperity. Many attempts have been made to secure a supply, but they have always failed on account of the strongly saline impregnation of the soil. The inhabitants have consequently hitherto been obliged to fetch water for their own consumption, and for the supply of vessels, from a distance of two miles; but in 1817, the Bombay presidency, at the recommendation of Capt. Macmurdo, sanctioned the expenditure of 1000 rupees for the construction of a tank, capable of containing a twelvemonth's supply of water, which when completed will tend greatly to the removal of this evil, and to the future prosperity of the port.—*(Macmurdo, MS. Documents, &c.)*

TAHEJ.—Although this was the capital of Cutch in 1582, when Abul Fazel wrote, all traces of it have been lost in modern times; but from what he says it was probably situated somewhere to the north west of Anjar.

WAGUR *(or Choorwaghur)*.—This district forms the eastern portion of Cutch Proper, as distinguished from the Runn, and has the shape of a peninsula, being nearly surrounded by that immense morass and the gulf of Cutch. The interior is somewhat elevated and woody, with various small streams and water courses falling into the Runn. The people of Wagur are Mahommedans and noted for their predatory habits, which has obtained for their country the distinctive appellation of Choor Waghur, or the Waghur of thieves. A considerable part of this territory was formerly tributary to the Nabobs of Rahdunpoor, but these princes falling into decay, and being unable to enforce their claims, the tribute has not for a considerable time been exacted. In later times the Rows of Cutch have claimed feudal superiority over the whole, and being assisted by a detachment of British troops, so many of the petty native chiefs were expelled, that in

1816, no force remained to prevent the incursions of plunderers from the north and west. It would have been better policy, had the Row taken security for their future good behaviour from these petty chieftains, and maintained them in possession of their lands, on condition that their fortresses either retained a Cutch garrison, or were entirely destroyed. The forcible transfer of landed property on the west coast of India, is always followed by a series of excesses on the part of the ejected; and the contiguity of Wagur to the most extensive desert of Hindostan, through which the disaffected of the neighbouring countries are numerously scattered, presents to the exiles an inviting retreat, from whence they can advantageously prosecute their predatory excursions. This result took place in 1816, when the disaffected from Wagur were joined by others from the Jutwaur country, and by those tribes of the desert that had adopted a predatory life, after the expulsion of the Abassy family from the throne of Sinde.

After the fort of Kuntcote had been partially destroyed by working parties from the troops and by the people of the country; the Row interceded for the preservation of the remainder, promising to establish a strong military post, which was indispensable in some part of the north-west frontier, in order to guard it against the inroads of the more northern and western plunderers. Besides this reason for its retention, the wild and jungly hills that surround Kuntcote appeared so well adapted for the retreats of banditti, that the further demolition of the fort was stopped, and the Raja in consequence established there a police detachment of considerable strength. The town of Beylahnear, the northern extremity, also required examination and additional precautions. This place with the land attached had been the grass of a Waghela Rajpoot family, which in the course of time split into three branches, each of which possessed a section of the town, separated off by a wall and towers. One of these families sought the protection of the Row of Cutch, while the other fled to Parkur in the desert; on which event Beylah was occupied, two of the forts destroyed, and the third garrisoned by a strong detachment of horse and foot. This place had long been the principal rendezvous of the depredators who laid waste the Gujerat peninsula, and it would have been impolitic again to confide it to the integrity of a petty native chieftain. A police station was in consequence fixed on the spot, and the good effects resulting from the measure were soon visible, as no banditti have since attempted to take the route by Beylah into Jhallawaur; although it was formerly the most frequented road. Of the Beylah family two branches were retained in the service of the Row, and still enjoy the produce of their lands; whilst the other, refusing the advances of his highness towards accommodation, is still in exile at Parkur in the desert.

Amongst other arrangements Lodrauni, the grass of a Waghela Rajpoot, and

situated to the north-westward of Beylah, was garrisoned by the Row, and a tribute imposed on its owner, whilst Guddra, another port in that direction, was rendered untenable, and left in possession of its chiefs. The chiefs of Arrysir, Wandia, and Chittore, being Jahrejas of the Row's own family, he was particularly inveterate against them, and was desirous of reducing them to a state of the most abject subjugation. It was at first resolved that their forts should be levelled, but it was afterwards discovered that no detachment of the Rows, however strong, could maintain an open position in defiance of the banditti, and as Arrysir and Wandia more especially commanded the eastern and western passes into the territories of the Peshwa and Guicowar, their occupation was of importance. The two first were in consequence preserved, and troops sent to garrison them, while Chittore, being totally useless, was levelled. Wandia admitted the troops without demur, but the Arrysir chief, not liking to trust himself to the good faith of the Cutch authorities, refused to admit them until he had the previous security of the British resident. Besides stationing these garrisons, an annual tax was settled, payable to the Row, of ten rupees for every plough, and a fine was also imposed on every chieftain according to his abilities. Eight other plundering strong holds were also occupied by the Row's officer, but the Grassias were permitted to enjoy the revenues, subject to the authority of the Cutch state, and liable to an annual tribute; the Waghela Rajpoots of 25 rupees, and the Jahrejas of 10 rupees per plough.

Towards the conclusion of 1816, the district of Wagur was tolerably tranquil, but notwithstanding the above mentioned precautionary measures, the Row of Cutch was supposed to hold his authority by a very slender tie, the Grassias having a rooted aversion to acknowledge the supremacy of the chief of their fraternity, although they would, without the same reluctance, have accepted a foreign yoke.—*(Macmurdo, Carnac, &c. &c. &c.)*

ARRYSIR.—A town in the Cutch province, 26 miles N. N. E. from Mallia. Lat. 23° 17′ N. long. 71° 3′ E.

CHETROLE.—A town in the Cutch province, 20 miles N. by W. from Mallia. Lat. 23° 12′ N. long. 70° 48′ E.

KUNTCOTE.—A town in the province of Cutch, mentioned by Abul Fazel, 34 miles N. from Mallia. Lat. 23° 20′ N. long. 70° 37′ E. In 1816 this strong hold surrendered to the detachment under Colonel East, when the fortifications were razed to the foundation.

KUTTARIA.—A town in the province of Cutch, 11 miles N. N. W. from Mallia. Lat. 23° 5′ N. long. 70° 42′ E.

WANDIA.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated on the north side of the Runn, immediately opposite to Mallia. Lat. 23° 3′ N.

long. 70° 43′ E. Goorjee, uncle to the chief of Wandia, was taken among the prisoners at Mallia in 1809, when that den of thieves was stormed by the detachment under Colonel Walker, who besides imposed a fine of 75,000 rupees on the chieftain of Wandia.

BEYLAH.—A town in the province of Cutch, district of Wagur, situated towards the northern extremity, 58 miles N. E. from Anjar. Lat. 23° 41′ N. long. 70° 50′ E. The site of Beylah is very commanding, and its possession in a manner disposes of the fate of Wagur, as far as it is connected with the people of Parkur, and the other plunderers of the desert.

PUCHUM.—By this name the large portion of the Runn, which bounds Cutch to the north, and separates it from the sandy desert of Chalchkaun, is known. Being less marshy and barren than the rest, it exhibits spots under cultivation, and affords pasturage for numerous flocks of different kinds. It is principally occupied by the Sumas, a tribe of Sindeans, who are supposed capable of furnishing on an emergency 5,000 fighting men. The chief town, or rather village, is named Kowrah.—(*Colonel Walker, &c.*)

KOWRAH.—A town in the Cutch province, surrounded by the immense morass named the Runn, 38 miles N. from Bhooj, the capital of Cutch. Lat. 23° 46′ N. long. 69° 44′ E.

THE PROVINCE OF GUJERAT.

(GUJARA RASHTRA.)

THIS large province is situated principally between the 21st and 24th degrees of north latitude. On the north it is bounded by the province of Ajmeer; on the south by the sea and the province of Aurungabad; to the east it has Malwah and Khondesh, and to the west portions of Mooltan, Cutch, and the sea. In length it may be estimated at 320 miles, by 180 the average breadth. The south-western extremity of this province approaches the shape of a peninsula, formed by the gulfs of Cutch and Cambay, and the Indian Ocean. When the institutes of Acber were composed by Abul Fazel, in 1582, Gujerat extended southward to Damaun, where it touched on Baglana, as appears from the following delineation extracted from the Ayeen Acberry:—

"The soubah of Gujerat is situated in the second climate. The length from Boorhanpoor to Juggeth (Dwaraca) is 320 coss, and the breadth from Jalore to the port of Damaun measures 260 coss, and also from Ider to the port of Cambay it is 70 coss broad. On the east lies Khandesh; on the north Jalore and Ider; on the south are the ports of Damaun and Cambayet, and on the west Juggeth. In the southern parts of this soubah are many mountains. It is watered by the ocean, and the following rivers; the Sabermatty, the Bateruck, the Mehindry, the Nerbudda, the Tuptee, and the Sersooty."

"Javari and bajera are the principal grains cultivated here. The fields are enclosed with hedges of the jekoom tree, which is a strong defence against cattle, and makes the country almost impenetrable to an army. This soubah is famous for painters, carvers, and handicraftsmen, and there is a great traffic carried on in precious stones. Silver is brought from Rome (the Turkish empire) and Irak. At first Putten was the seat of government, then Chumpaneer, and now Ahmedabad. Gujerat contains nine districts; viz. 1. Ahmedabad; 2. Putten; 3. Nadowt; 4. Behrodeh; 5. Behroatch; 6. Champaneer; 7. Kodehra; 8. Soret. These districts are subdivided into 198 pergunnahs, of which 13 contain ports. This soubah has 67,375 cavalry and 8,900 infantry."

Such were the statistics of the province during the time of Abul Fazel; at

present the principal territorial and political subdivisions, commencing from the west and north, are the following:—

1. Puttunwara.	6. Waugur.	11. Broach.
2. Jutwar.	7. Chumpaneer.	12. Naundode.
3. Gujerat Peninsula.	8. Cherrooter.	13. Surat.
4. Chowal.	9. Ahmedabad.	14. Attaveesee.
5. Ederwara.	10. Baroda.	

A considerable portion of the Gujerat province, particularly towards the eastern frontier, is very hilly and much covered with jungle, which is rather encouraged by the inhabitants, on account of the security it affords against invaders. The western boundary, extending along the Banass river, is a level arid country in some parts, and in others a low salt swamp, resembling the Runn. The interior of the Gujerat peninsula is hilly and rocky, but with spots exhibiting strong powers of vegetation, where water is accessible. Within these swamps, jungles and hills, dwell many tribes of professed thieves, who prey on each other, and, being mostly cavalry, extend their depredations to a great distance.

The ancient and ill-defined limits of Gujerat appear to have included the greater part of Khandesh and Malwah. The coasts of the Gujerat peninsula are particularly adapted for piracy, as they abound with little creeks and inlets, which furnish shelter and concealment from cruizers, on account of the difficult navigation. The province is traversed by several noble rivers, such as the Nerbuddah, Tuptee, Mahy, Mehindry, and Sabermatty, but in many tracts a great scarcity of water is experienced. In the sandy soil north of the Mahy river, which soon absorbs the periodical rains, the wells are deeper than to the southward, being from 80 to 100 feet deep. In the adjacent province of Ajmeer they are still deeper, the inhabitants frequently penetrating to the depth of 300 feet, before they reach a sufficient supply of water. In some particular portions of this province, for many square miles not a stone is to be met with, while in others, but not many, nothing else is to be seen.

The country of Gujerat generally, notwithstanding its smoothness to the eye, is much intersected by ravines, and ground broken up by the rains. Some of these chasms are of considerable depth and extent, and during the rains suddenly assume the appearance and volume of rapid rivers, not to be crossed without the assistance of rafts or boats. When this occurs, the natives soon establish temporary ferries, where passengers are not required to pay until they have landed, and mendicants and religious devotees of every description are wholly exempted. During the hot and dry months the surface of the country mostly appears sand or dust, and in the rainy season a thick mire. The fields

in general, except for particular crops, do not require much manure, what they use being chiefly the dung of animals and the refuse of the cow-house, to which may be added the remains of the coco-nut after the oil has been expressed. The natural productions are the same as those of tropical countries generally, among which may be enumerated horses, excellent bullocks and draught cattle, coarse cloths, saltpetre, hemp, indigo, and opium. With the view of protecting the Bengal opium monopoly, the supreme government in 1803 prohibited the cultivation of the poppy within the British territories in Gujerat, and also endeavoured to discourage the importation of opium into Bombay from Gujerat, Malwah, and the Guicowar's territories. The plant, however, had never been much raised in Gujerat merely for the manufacture of that narcotic, the province having been all along supplied with the drug from the adjacent country of Malwah, and the chief ports of importance were Cambay, Jambosier, Broach, and Surat. In the northern portions of Gujerat the natives indulge to excess in the use of this pernicious drug, and the propensity can only be checked by raising the price beyond their means of frequent payment. The districts possessed by the British in Gujerat are susceptible of great improvements; but these could not be even commenced until the authority of the government was completely established, the accomplishment of which has been greatly retarded and impeded by their local positions, being formerly surrounded by the more extensive territories of the native powers, the Peshwa and Guicowar.

The Bheels and poor inhabitants of the jungles of Gujerat use the gum which exudes from the trunk and branches of the baubul tree as food. These trees are very common throughout the wastes in the north-western quarter, and grow spontaneously on all unoccupied ground. It is also planted as a fence round the villages, and the farm yards are protected by it against the assaults of most wild animals; but it affords but a feeble defence against the fury of the lion, which is more common in this province than in most others of India.

In so vast a province, never completely subdued by any invader, a great diversity of population may be expected, and accordingly Gujerat exhibits a wonderfully strange variety of sects, castes, and customs. Under each head respectively further details of such as are peculiar to any particular portion will be found; we shall here, therefore, only enumerate such as are of more universal application.

In some parts of the province the Grassias are a numerous class of landholders, and in others merely possess a sort of feudal authority over certain portions of land and villages. Neither the original source nor precise commencement of the Grassia claims have ever been satisfactorily traced; and etymological explanation has been resorted to with as little success. According to some Hindoo pundits,

gyrassie is a term signifying a mouthful, bit, or small portion, and equally applicable whether the bounty given be voluntary or extorted. The Mahommedans on this subject make a bad pun, and say the term is compounded of *ghyre* (without) and *rast* (right). Others think the phrase originates from the word *ghauss* (grass,) allusive to the extreme appearance of indigence and distress, which a subject sometimes assumes in the presence of his ruler, by standing before him with a wisp of grass in his mouth.

Whatever be the original derivation of the word, these Grassias have not, as has been supposed, the slightest claim to the distinction of a tribe or caste, nor could they, from the great variety of individuals, ever be formed into one: Grassias are of many different tribes of Hindoos, some are Mahommedans, and any person purchasing the claims, or lending money, or farming lands and collections, would even, if a Parsee or Christian, come equally under the denomination of Grassia, which is also extended to all the mercenaries employed by the principal to impress terror or inflict injury. The records of antiquity furnish no confirmation to the justice of these complicated demands, and the Ayeen Acberry, or Institutes of the Emperor Acber, being wholly silent on the subject of claims, now so formidable to the public peace and revenue, it may be safely concluded that they did not exist at the date of that laborious compilation, otherwise they would never have been passed unnoticed in a work composed for the express purpose of exhibiting the existing state of the empire.

The common and traditionary report of these claims is, that subsequent to the decease of the Emperor Acber in 1605, the Gujerat province was so infested by the incursions of the Bheels and robbers from the hills and jungles, that the Nabobs of Surat, in the reign of Ferokhsere, submitted to a compromise, and ceded certain lands to them in each village. These surrenders are said to have been denominated "Vanta" grounds, and exempted from taxation by the Mogul government, but afterwards subjected to the payment of a quit-rent by Damajee Guicowar, when he conquered Gujerat. It is also asserted, that depredations after this still continuing, the zemindars pursued the same weak policy, and to satisfy fresh invaders, and gratify the avarice of the old, agreed to the payment of what is now called "toda," or ready money.

These vanta lands, or toda gyrauss, have been continually increasing during the anarchy which so long prevailed in Gujerat; and by the persevering encroachments from all sides, the corruption of the native revenue officers, and the necessities of the landholders, much government property was, in these forms, alienated and mortgaged, and every subsequent contingency or imposition was consolidated under the general term of toda gyrauss. With the

Grassias it has always been an immutable axiom, that a claim once received never becomes defunct; and at this day the Balesur pergunnah pays an item of 30 rupees, on account of a charitable attention once bestowed by a humane Banyan, on the wife of a Grassia, who was suddenly taken in labour at his door; and many other spurious charges are annually collected under an infinite variety of names.

Proprietors of such claims, and more especially of toda gyrauss, seldom prosecute them in person, but having retired to some secluded residence, such as Rajpeepla and Mandavie, they declare themselves chieftains, and rally adventurers round them, to whom they sometimes farm out the Grassia claim, or depute them to levy it. Thus qualified, the adventurer enlists a banditti of every caste and country, with the intention of making money honestly if circumstances favour him, but at all events of making money. In the course of his operations the zemindars are bribed or bullied into new surrenders, the government revenue is misappropriated, its subjects mutilated, and the country devastated. These inroads, vexatious as they are, are perplexed and aggravated by the family feuds of the Grassias, whose claims are subdivided into minute shares, and so contradictory the one to the other, that the cultivators are wholly uncertain which is the true and which the false claimant; but all are equally compelled by these incendaries to propitiate their forbearance by contributions of food and money. Any proposals made by government to liquidate all these claims by payment of a fixed sum annually, has always been rejected, the Grassias preferring a fluctuating revenue, with the military pomp it confers, to a certain one without it. It occasionally happens also, that these demands lie so long dormant, that the extinction of the claimants is concluded; when suddenly an heir, real or fictitious, enforces his pretensions by conflagration and murder. Indeed so complicated are these claims and so anarchical the system of collection, that the British revenue officers have never yet been able to arrange any thing approaching to an accurate list of them, from which their justice or injustice might be inferred.

A great proportion of these Grassias who thus infest the British territories are residents in the adjoining countries belonging to the Guicowar and Peshwa, and especially in the districts of Attaveesy and Rajpeepla, Mandwie north of the Nerbuddah, Meagam and Ahmode between that stream and the Mahy, and Mandowee on the Tupty. On the rugged margins of all rivers in Gujerat, many Grassias reside in a kind of independence, and also all over the Gujerat peninsula, usually denominated Cattywar by the natives. Criminals from the plains fly to their haunts for refuge, and receive the names of Grassias, Catties, Coolies, Bheels, and Mewassies, but are in reality all thieves, and supposed to amount

to one half of the population north of the Mahy river. In 1814 the Bombay government was endeavouring to introduce an arrangement for paying the Grassia claims from the public treasury, to prevent the crimes and disorders committed under the plea of levying those claims. A commencement, and some progress had been made in the Surat district which was the most obnoxious to these ravages.

Of all the plunderers who infest Gujerat the most bloody and untameable are the Coolies, who, however, present different characters in different districts, the most barbarous being in the vicinity of the Runn, or in the neighbourhood of the Mahy river. These are taught to despise every approach to civilization, and the appellation they bestow on a man decently dressed is that of a pimp to a brothel. In order to procure respect they stain their apparel with charcoal pounded and mixed with oil, and their charons (priests or bards), and other influential persons, excel the laity in filthiness. With this caste cleanliness is indicative of cowardice. These customs are said to have originated with the Naroda, or degraded Rajpoots, who form a considerable portion of the population. However rich, a Naroda never dresses better than the lowest of his caste. The Portugueze at an early period used the name of Coolie as a term of reproach, and from them it has descended to the English.

The description of men named Bhatts, or Bharotts, abound more in Gujerat than in any other of the provinces of India. Some of them cultivate the land, but the greater number are recorders of births and deaths, and beggars or itinerant bards, in which last capacity they are also frequently traders. Some of this caste stand security for the public revenue, and guarantee the observance of agreements and awards. They are a singularly obstinate race, and when pressed for money for which they have become security, sometimes sacrifice their own lives, but more frequently put to death some aged female or a child of their family, in the presence of the person who caused them to break their word. A Bhatt, however, will never become security for a person of whom he knows nothing. Between the security and his principal there generally exists a bond of union founded on the experience of their mutual necessity to each other, and the intimate knowledge possessed by the Bhatt of the resources and disposition of his client enables him fully to appreciate the risk he is exposed to. Under a native ruler, Bhatts are a link which connects the Mewassy portion of the society with the government, every Grassia, Coolie and Bheel having his Bhatt, who derives subsistence or opulence from a participation in the revenue of his patron, and whose intervention appears calculated to produce salutary influence on minds callous to other impressions. These Bhatts are rewarded by a small per centage on the amount of the revenues for which they have become security, and

for the consequent protection it affords against the importunities of the inferior agents of government, their persons being regarded as sacred, and their influence very great over the superstitious minds of the natives.

The Charons in Gujerat are a sect of Hindoos allied in manners and customs with the Bhatts. They are often possessed of large droves of carriage cattle, by means of which they carry on a distant inland traffic in grain and other articles. Travellers in the wildest parts of Gujerat are protected by Brahmins and Charons hired for the purpose. When a band of predatory horse appears, these sacred persons take an oath to die by their own hands in case their protegé is pillaged, and in such veneration are they held by these superstitious thieves, that in almost every case this threat is found effectually to restrain them.

Among those who benefited most by the lax system of government which followed the death of Aurengzebe were the religious orders, such as the Bhatts and Charons, who, however, never enjoyed or exercised any of the pastoral influence of the sacerdotal class. The legality of their acquisitions was never inquired into, from the horror of self immolation, which they threatened if it were attempted. The system of Bhatt agency in revenue matters, strongly marked the distrust subsisting between the Maharatta government and its subjects. If the one demanded of the Mewassies Bhatt security for the payment of the revenue and peaceable conduct, the other required a similar security from the ruling power against its own oppression and extortion. The instrumentality of the Bhatts was consequently a useful and economical expedient to a feeble government, incapable by legitimate means of controuling and gradually civilizing its turbulent subjects, but was a clumsy machinery which impeded the progress of a strong one. The Mewassies from the time of the conquest received the most injurious treatment from the Maharattas, who, having driven them to desperation, believed it impossible to reclaim them, and in reality treated the Grassias, Coolies, and Bheels like outcasts from society, or beasts of the field. But on the substitution of a government solicitous for the welfare of its subjects, and desirous of elevating these classes from a state of degradation to their proper station in the scale of human beings, a different result took place, and the Mewassies never demanded security from the British government against its own oppression, being apprehensive of none. The annals, also, of all native history, from the Mahommedan conquest, prove the inefficacy of severity, whether exercised by means of treachery, or by brute force, in reclaiming their evil propensities. In the more early stage of the British establishment in Gujerat, policy dictated the propriety of having recourse to every expedient for checking and keeping in order the unruly tribes, until such time as experience of its justice and energy should convince them, that full reliance might be placed on the first, and that the last

was not to be resisted with impunity. That period having arrived, and the Bombay presidency, having long been convinced of the inefficacy of the Bhatt system as an instrument of jurisprudence, determined entirely to supersede their agency as securities within the limits of the British territories, which accordingly took place in 1817.

In Gujerat, as in other parts of Hindostan Proper, there are a race of people called Ungreas, whose profession is that of money carriers, which is done by concealing it in their quilted clothes. Although miserably poor, one of them may be trusted with the value of 1000 rupees to carry many miles off, merely on the responsibility of his mirdha, or superior, who frequently is not richer than the other. They are of all castes, and in general well armed and athletic. When performing distant journies they arrange themselves into parties, and fight with desperation to defend a property, for which their recompense is a mere subsistence. There is another set in the northern and western tracts named Puggies, from their extraordinary expertness in tracing a thief by his steps. When necessary, this must be resorted to early in the morning, before the people have been moving about, in which event, such is their dexterity, that they seldom fail in pointing out the village where the thief has taken refuge.

The Dheras of this province are a caste similar to the Mhŏr of the Deccan, and the Pariars of Malabar. Their employment is to carry filth of every description out of the roads and villages, and from their immediate vicinity. They scrape bare the bones of every animal that dies within their limits, and share out the flesh, which they cook in various ways and feed upon; the hide they sell to the caste of Mangs for one, two, or three rupees, according to the animal it belonged to. They are also obliged by ancient custom to serve the state and travellers as carriers of baggage to the nearest village from their own. They are guilty of numberless petty thefts, and much addicted to intoxication, when they can procure the requisites. At Jumbosier, in 1806, a Dhera was blown from a gun for poisoning a number of bullocks and other cattle for the sake of their skins. This caste is more employed by the British than is agreeable to the purer classes of Hindoos, who are contaminated by their vicinity. The gooroos, or priests, of the Dheras, are named Garoodas, and cook and devour carrion like the rest of the tribe. Their most appropriate duties are the solemnizing of marriages and funeral obsequies among their own caste. On account of their extreme degradation they dare not read the Vedas nor learn Sanscrit. They have abridgements of the mythological stories of the Purans, written in the vernacular idiom on rolls of paper, ornamented with rude figures of the heroes of Ramayuna, by the exhibition of which, and the muttering of some charm, they pretend to cure diseases. In the Gujerat villages it is the custom to make the Dheras, Halalkhores, Bhun-

geas who eat carrion, and Bheels who kill innocent animals, to live by themselves in huts apart from the rest of the inhabitants. The washermen are also considered so cruel, on account of the numerous deaths they involuntarily occasion to the animalculæ in the process of washing, that they are likewise classed among the seven degraded or excluded professions.

In this quarter of India the term Koonbee is given to the pure Sudra, or fourth caste, whatever his occupation be, but who, in Gujerat, is generally a cultivator. In the Deccan this title distinguishes the cultivator from one who wears arms, and prefers being called a Maharatta. They mostly observe the Brahminical forms of worship; but the Gujeratee Koonbees in their diet abstain from all flesh and fish; whereas the Maharattas eat freely of mutton, poultry, fish, game, and every animal fit for food, except the cow species. A Gujerat Koonbee will not willingly kill any animal, not even the most venemous snake. According to tradition the ancestors of the Koonbees, who are now the most numerous and industrious portion of the agricultural peasantry, were emigrants from Ajmeer and Hindostan Proper. They hold portions of government land, and are called Patels, in contradistinction to the Grassias. There are here three tribes of Koonbees, named Lewa, Kudja, and Arjanna. Formerly the Mahommedans of Gujerat engaged but little in agriculture or manufactures, addicting themselves mostly to traffic and the warlike professions; but since the extension of the British influence in the province, the latter trade has so much declined, that they are gradually resorting to the pacific arts of husbandry.

The different Nyat, or families of Brahmins, established in Gujerat, are 84, called after the places of their nativity or inheritance. Each of them has several subdivisions, the members of which, although on an equality, are not permitted to intermarry, the distinctions being almost innumerable.

The Vaneeya are a numerous tribe of Hindoos in Gujerat, named Banyans by the English, and are separated into many sub-divisions, besides the Awucks, or seceders, from the Brahminical doctrines. They are all of them merchants and traffickers, and many of them travel to parts very remote from India, where they remain from one to ten years, after which they return to their wives and children. Many also finally settle in the towns of foreign countries, where their descendants continue to speak and write the Gujerattee tongue, which may be pronounced the grand mercantile language of Indian marts. The Gujerat dialect is very nearly allied to the Hindi, while the character in which it is written conforms almost exactly to the vulgar Nagari. On examining a translation of the Lord's Prayer into the Gujarattee, the missionaries discovered that of 32 words no less than 28 were the same as in the Bengalese and Hindostany specimens.

The sect of Jains are here more numerous than in any of the contiguous pro-

vinces, and possess many handsome temples adorned with well wrought images of marble, spars and various metals. Their chief deity, of the 24 which they have altogether, is worshipped as in other parts of India under the name of Parswanatha. Among the Brahminical Hindoos, the adherents of Siva mark their foreheads horizontally, and those of Vishnu perpendicularly, which should be renewed every morning, and if attainable by a Brahmin. At the visits of the Rajpoots, Grassias, and other tribes of this province, opium is always presented in some form, solid or liquid, and swallowed by the guests in quantities that would destroy an European. The natives of Gujerat, especially of the Rajpoot castes, when driven to desperation, dress in yellow clothes, which is a signal of despair and being reduced to the last extremity. The females here are frequently known to burn themselves with husbands, with whom they have never cohabited, and with those who have ill treated them, as well as the reverse, a mistaken sense of what they conceive to be their duty actuating them, independent of affection. Diseases and ailments which cannot readily be accounted for, are attributed to the malignant influence of witches' glances; hence in the Coolie and Rajpoot communities many women are seen without their noses, this mutilation being supposed effectual in destroying the power.

Besides its native hordes and castes Gujerat (with Bombay) contains nearly all the Parsees, or fire-worshippers, to be found in the continent of India, the feeble remains of the once predominant religion of the Magi. According to the accounts which the learned of the modern Parsees give of their own origin, it appears that, after the Mahommedan religion was promulgated in Arabia, and began to pervade Persia, the ancestors of the Indo-Parsees retired to the mountains, where they continued until the overthrow of the Persian monarchy, and the death of Yezdijird, the last sovereign. Finding the religion of their native country wholly overthrown, and themselves outlaws, they wandered towards the port of Ormus, then governed by a branch of the old royal family, where they resided 15 years, and where they acquired the art of ship-building, for which they are still justly celebrated, and also some practical knowledge of navigation.

At the expiration of the above period they quitted Ormus, and proceeded to the island of Diu, where they sojourned 19 years, when finding it too small for their increasing numbers, they embarked for Gujerat, where they anchored at a town named Seyjan, then governed by Jadu Rana, and near to a point of land still named St. John by European mariners. After some negociation with this prince they were allowed to land, on condition that they disarmed, and assumed the Hindoo dress, forms of marriage, and language. In this hospitable land they first lighted up the Atish Beharam, or sacred fire, and remained stationary

for several hundred years; but afterwards many migrated from Urdwarra, the site of the holy flame, and with their families settled at Nowsaree, Veriou, Oclaseer, Broach, and Cambay. Their subsequent establishment at Surat and Bombay, and rapid increase of numbers, belong to a more recent era.

After their voluntary dispersion from the Seyjan territories, Mahmood Begra, Sultan of Ahmedabad, an usurper and bigot, about A. D. 1450, detached an army of 30,000 men to levy tribute from the Seyjan chief. The latter requested assistance from the Parsees, who joined him to the number of 1400, and a bloody battle was fought, in which the Mahommedans were worsted; but returning with reinforcements the Seyjan Raja was compelled to pay tribute, and acknowledge the paramount authority of the Ahmedabad sultan. This conflict appears to have been the first and last of their battles, and the only instance, during a residence of 1000 years, in which they have intermeddled with politics. Since then the Parsees have resided in larger or smaller communities, dispersed in cities and villages along the coast of India, from Diu to Bombay, and although very enterprising traders, embarking frequently on distant and perilous voyages, few settle out of their own country, by which term they mean the space above defined, and within which limits they have accumulated to the number of about 150,000 families.

The modern Parsees are divided into two grand classes, the Mobid or clerical, and the Behdeen or laity. Mobids may marry a Behdeen female; but Behdeens cannot take wives from Mobid families. The Parsees often train up other people's children of both sexes, and admit them to the privileges of the Behdeen tribe; and the illegitimate offspring of Parsee men by native women are also admitted into their caste. Nor do they reject proselytes even when grown up, if their character be such as to inspire a confidence that they will scrupulously observe the laws of Zoroaster. The latter species of adoptions are rare, but the former not unfrequent, and account for the different shades of complexion. The Parsee females have long maintained an unspotted character for chastity and superior continence, which may be accounted for from their being placed by their religious tenets (6th article) on an equality with the men. When a betrothed girl dies, the guardians of the boy who has thus lost his bride, must look out for a girl who in a similar manner has been deprived of her intended husband; and among adults widowers ought only to wed with widows. A widow under forty is at liberty to marry again. Like the Hindoos the Parsees betroth their children between the ages of four and nine years; the solemnization of the marriage takes place when convenient to the parties, but within the ninth year of the girl's age.

After death a dog is procured to watch the corpse for a time, the Parsees

believing most firmly in aerial evil beings visible to the canine species, and esteem those dogs quickest of perception that have light brown eye-brows. From this quality, which they suppose inherent, they account for the dismal howl of dogs at night, which they affirm drives the hovering devils from their house-tops, and they say that the dogs exert a less frightful effort when their barking is merely directed against thieves. The Parsees have an extreme objection to touch a dead hare, but not a living one, and this dislike extends to all other dead animals, although not so vehemently. They do not keep registers of their own numbers, which from their pacific and industrious habits must be rapidly on the increase. The places where they are at present collected in greatest bodies are Diu, Cambay, Broach, Oclaseer, Hansoot, Veriou, Surat, Nowsarry, Damaun, Bombay, and Urdwarra, the last mentioned being still the chief residence of the Parsee priests, and the depository of their sacred fire brought with them from Persia. In their original country the greatest number of Guebres, or fire-worshippers, are collected in the city of Yezd, situated about 230 miles S. E. from Ispahan, where they are said to occupy about 4000 houses. They are very industrious, but greatly oppressed by the modern Persian governments, and taxed at 20 piasters per head, besides suffering many other extortions.

Along with the Hindoo dress they adopted many of their customs, forgot their own language, and took to that of their wives, the Gujerattee, scarcely an individual of a thousand being able to speak any thing else. Their restrictions as to diet have the appearance of being formed on the Hindoo model, as also their betrothing and marriages. At present the young men of good families are taught to read and write English, but very few think of studying Persian, or of making researches into the ancient history of their nation. The opulent are merchants, ship-owners, and land-holders; the lower classes are shop-keepers, and exercise such mechanic arts as are not connected with fire. On this account there are neither silversmiths nor any workers of metals among them, and the use of fire-arms being repugnant to their doctrines, the professions of soldier and sailor are rejected. The bulk of the Parsee population are weavers husbandmen, and cultivators of the date; palmira and mowah, and distillers and venders of their produce at the sea-ports; many also are ship and house carpenters. In Bombay they enter into the service of Europeans, as dobashes, or interpreters, and domestic servants.

The clergy and their descendants are very numerous, and are distinguished by wearing white turbans. Except those, however, who are more especially selected for their religious ceremonies, they follow all kinds of occupations without any distinction of caste. Many of the Mobids, or sacerdotal class, can

read and write what they call the Zend, or Pehlavi character, sufficiently well to answer the purpose of their solemnities; but their knowledge seldom penetrates deeper, nor are the Parsees generally addicted to any kind of literature, their exertions being wholly directed to the pursuits of commerce. On the death of a Behdeen, or one of the laity, the number of adult Mobids (clerical) males in the settlement may be known, as they all make their appearance, and receive a shirt or other piece of apparel from the heir, who is also under the necessity of giving them a feast in order to fill their stomachs. From these entertainments it was inferred, that in 1806, there were 1600 Mobids in Surat arrived at man's age; the Behdeens were supposed to exceed 12,000. By a census taken at Broach in 1807, it was found there were 3101 souls old and young, dark and fair, of Mobid and Behdeen Parsees in that town and its suburbs. A recent innovation respecting the commencement of the Parsee new year, has separated this ancient and long united people into two sects; the one celebrating the festival of the new year a month before the other, which causes their religious ceremonies and festivals to happen at different periods of the year.

The province of Gujerat enjoyed a much more flourishing commerce, even during the most convulsed periods of the Mogul government, than it has ever done since. The chief exports are cotton, piece goods, and grain, and the principal trade is with Bombay. The imports consist mostly of sugar, raw silk, pepper, coco nuts, cochineal, and woollens, and absorb a great deal of bullion. The Surat manufactures have long been famous for their cheapness and excellent quality. Almost all castes of this province (Brahmins and Banyans excepted) follow the occupation of the loom occasionally, which employs a great number of the more industrious of the lower classes. In all the larger towns are to be found that remarkable race of men named the Boras, who, although Mahommedans in religion, are Jews in features, manners, and genius. They form every where a distinct community, and are every where noted for their address in bargaining, minute thrift, and constant attention to lucre; but they profess total uncertainty of their own origin. Boorhanpoor in Khandesh is the head quarters of this singular sect, and the residence of their moullah, or high priest; but the individuals are found straggling all over Gujerat, and the adjacent provinces as itinerant pedlers.

It is a custom in the Gujerat province, when a merchant finds himself failing, or actually failed, to set up a blazing lamp in his shop, house, or office, and then abscond until his creditors have examined his effects and received a disclosure of his property. Until his creditors have acquitted him he does not wear the tail of his waist-cloth hanging down, as is usual, but tucks it up. Persons who act

thus in time, so as not much to injure their creditors, are greatly esteemed; and have so frequently been remarked as subsequently prosperous, that Hindoo merchants have been known to set up a light (become bankrupt) without any real necessity, in hopes of good fortune afterwards.

The principal towns in this province are Surat, Ahmedabad, Broach, Cambay, Gogo, Bhownuggur, Chumpaneer, and Junaghur. It is difficult to estimate the number of inhabitants of a country where the extremes of population and desolation are to be found. Surat and its vicinity exemplify the first, and the north western districts the second. For the sake of security, the great body of the natives of Gujerat do not live in single sequestered houses, but in assemblages of them; in Malabar on the contrary every Hindoo has a distinct or distant dwelling. A Gujerat village is often visited by travelling comedians, who exhibit puppet shows and act historical plays. They are also occasionally frequented by musicians, dancing girls, singing men and women, wrestlers, and very expert jugglers, dancing bears, trickish goats, and monkies.

Fortifications were formerly very numerous in Gujerat, and still continue in the more savage and remote quarters, but wherever the British influence extends they are fast crumbling to decay. A few years ago female infanticide prevailed among the tribe of Jahrejahs, of which are the principal chieftains of the Gujerat peninsula, such as the Jam of Noanagur, the Rajas of Wadman, of Goundel, and many others. All these leaders, through the exertions of Mr. Duncan, the late governor of Bombay, and Colonel Walker, in 1807, were induced to enter into engagements renouncing the inhuman practice, which was usually perpetrated by drowning the infant in a bowl of milk as soon as born; but it is suspected they have not adhered very strictly to their agreement. The whole number of inhabitants in this vast province are pobably much underrated at six millions, in the proportion of one Mahommedan to ten Hindoos.

Another crime rather peculiar to the province is known to the British courts of justice by the name of "Jhansa." By Jhansa is meant the writing of threatening letters, destroying gardens and plantations, and burning stacks to enforce a compliance with some unjust demand. These offences were not formerly confined to the Grassias; they were resorted to in village feuds; even by the patels or heads of villages, as also by persons having dealings with the patels and cultivators, for the recovery of bad debts; but since the regular administration of justice, this absurd mode of obtaining redress, is less resorted to in the British districts, where it has also assumed a milder character, Jhansa being now seldom attended, as formerly, with acts of personal outrage and violence.

The Mahy Konta Coolies are so named owing to their coming from the banks of the Mahy river. These persons are thieves by profession, and also very

ingenious, active, and courageous. Sometimes they infest the highways, and intercept families and individuals proceeding to distant pilgrimages and religious fairs. When the season is favourable they visit Surat and other large cities, where the harvest of their industry is considerable, although from the increasing vigilance and efficiency of the British police, the exercise of their vocation is now attended with more difficulty and danger.

There are many remarkable wells and watering places in Gujerat, particularly one near Baroda, which is said to have cost nine lacks of rupees; and another at Vadwa, in the vicinity of Cambay, which, from the inscription, appears to have been erected in 1482. Smoking tobacco is a very universal practice among Hindoo males (Brahmins excepted, who take snuff freely) and Mahommedans of both sexes, throughout Gujerat. A begah of land, planted with tobacco, near Broach, yields a net revenue to government of 20 rupees, on an average. This province has long been famous for its excellent breed of cattle, especially the bullocks, which are reckoned the strongest, swiftest, and handsomest of India.

It is a common belief in Gujerat, that the province was originally peopled by the rude castes which still exist, and are known under the names of Coolies and Bheels, but there is neither record nor tradition regarding the nature of their religion or government, while subsisting in their primeval state. In the town of Rajpeepla, the Rajpoot successor is still formally invested by a family of Bheels, called Koobhal, or Kootel, descended from their original chieftains. Subsequent to this era, there is reason to suppose that the space of country, from the gulf of Cutch to the Concan, composed one great nation, speaking and writing the same language, the Gujerattee. The names at present affixed to the subdivisions of this province, are entirely modern, and can be traced to some incident or circumstance of their history. At a more recent period, the Rajpoots acquired the ascendancy, and the most powerful chief of that race resided at Anhulvada (named Nehrwalla and Puttun in the maps), situated on the northern frontier. According to traditions handed down among the Rajpoot tribes, they do not appear to have been aborigines, but military adventurers who entered the province at different periods, and there established themselves; they consequently have no ancient claim to the country, and even now continue to be opposed by the primitive inhabitants. Three Rajpoot dynasties are said to have occupied the throne of Anhulvada; the Chowra, the Soolunker, and the Vagheela; from which, as may be expected, many of the modern Grassia families claim descent.

We learn from Abul Fazel, that Gujerat was first invaded by Mahmood of Ghizni, about A. D. 1025, who subverted the throne of its native prince, named Jamund, and plundered Nehrwallah, his capital. After the establishment of the

Delhi sovereignty, this province remained for many years subordinate to the Patan emperors; but in the 15th century became again independent, under a dynasty of Rajpoot princes converted to the Mahommedan religion, who removed the seat of government to Ahmedabad, and influenced many of the natives to embrace their newly adopted faith. In 1572, in the reign of the Emperor Acber, this race of princes was overthrown, and the province subjugated; but during the period of its independence, it had greatly flourished as a maritime and commercial state, and when the Portugueze first visited Malacca, they found a regular intercource established between Gujerat and that port.

After the death of Aurengzebe in 1707, this province was at an early period overrun by hordes of Maharatta depredators, and, about A. D. 1724, was finally severed from the Mogul throne, which never afterwards recovered its authority. At present, the more civilized and cultivated parts are possessed by the British, the Guicowar, and (until recently) the Peshwa. The British territories occupy a considerable tract of country on both sides of the gulf of Cambay, including the populous cities of Surat, Broach, Gogo, Cambay, and Bhownugger. Several of the Peshwa's districts were intermingled with those of the British, and approached within a few miles of Surat; these he was permitted to retain as a particular favour when the treaty of Bassein was concluded. The sea-coast, from the gulf of Cambay to that of Cutch, is occupied by different petty native chiefs, some tributary to the Guicowar, and others independent; but now, much against their inclinations, restrained from piracy by the predominance of the British power by sea and land. With a view to the coercion of these rapacious tribes, it became advisable on various grounds of political expediency, to maintain permanently an advanced position on the western side of Gujerat; but the Mooluck Serishta, or conventional law of this quarter, consisting of a variety of tributary though internally independent states, would in strict justice prevent the British or Guicowar forces from establishing such a military station without their consent, unless for the temporary preservation of the public peace. The progress of events soon rendered the adoption of the measure indispensable, and a detachment from the Bombay army was cantoned at Palyad, to maintain tranquillity and overawe the turbulent chieftains of the neighbourhood. Since that period, with a few trifling exceptions, the British portion of the Gujerat province has been disturbed by no hostile attacks from without, or dissensions within; but in 1811, the annual fall of rain having failed in Marwar, where every trace of vegetation disappeared, the locusts made their way into the north-west division of Gujerat, named Puttun, and from thence scoured the Gujerat Peninsula, causing infinite devastation. Proceeding onward, a detachment of these

destructive insects appeared so far south as the city of Broach, on the Nerbudda, beyond which point locusts were never known to extend. By the commencement of 1812, these desolators had nearly disappeared; but both in that and the succeeding year, a scarcity, almost amounting to a famine, prevailed throughout the province.

In 1817, Bahadur and Saolee, pergunnahs situated inconveniently near to Baroda, were exchanged for the interest held by the Guicowar in Ahmedabad, independent of the farm. The mutual exchanges with the Baroda government were equivalent to 578,848 rupees. Besides the above, the British ceded half the town of Pitlaud for the Guicowar's share of Omrut, by which arrangement the possessions of both were consolidated, and the frontier of the British possessions in Gujerat became for the first time susceptible of definition. At present, the pergunnahs of Bhownuggur, Gogo, and Sehoree, are the most southerly; a line drawn thence through Ranpoor to Patree, on the lesser Runn, and eastward from Patree through Veerungur, Ahmedabad, and Kuppurwunje to Balasinore and Veerpoor on the Mahy, forms the western and northern boundary; the Mahy bounds the east; the whole including an area tolerably well defined of about 11,000 square miles.

The northern and western quarters, and the centre of the Gujerat peninsula, have only been recently explored, and exhibit a state of society, which probably at a remote period existed all over Hindostan. The number of societies of armed and sanguinary thieves, by birth and profession, in this region, is scarcely credible, and excites a surprise, that, thinly as the inhabitants are scattered over the wilder parts, any population at all should remain. Within the districts acquired by the East India Company, all barbarous practices have either been abolished, or are gradually disappearing; but in the northern and western quarters they still prevail in their utmost perfection of cruelty and cunning. —*(Drummond, Public MS. Documents, Crow, Bourchier, Walker, Macmurdo, James Forbes, Pope, Warden, &c. &c. &c.)*

NERBUDDA RIVER *(Narmada, rendering soft).*—This river has its source at Omercuntuc, in the province of Gundwana, close to that of the Sone. Lat. 22° 54′ N. long. 82° 10′ E. After ascending a table land at Omercuntuc, a Hindoo temple is found nearly in the centre of it, where the Nerbudda rises from a small well, and glides along the surface of the highland, until reaching the west end it is precipitated into Mundlah. The fall is described by the natives as being very great, and they assert that at the foot of the table land its bed becomes a considerable expanse; and being joined by other streams, it assumes the volume of a river. From hence its course is nearly due west, with

fewer curvatures than most Indian rivers, passing through part of Gundwana, Khandesh, Malwah, and Gujerat; in which last province from Zinore to Chandode the stream is reckoned peculiarly holy, and much resorted to for the purposes of ablution. Including the windings, the whole length of the course may be estimated at 700 miles; and by the Maharattas in the early stages of their power, it was customary to ford it at Bowapoor. Salgrams, or sacred pebbles, are found in this river near Oncar Mandatta, which are considered as types of Siva, and are called Ban Ling.

The name of Deccan was formerly applied by Hindoo geographers to the whole of those countries which are situated to the south of the Nerbudda, but the term Deccan now signifies in Hindostan, the countries between the Nerbudda and Krishna. The era of Vicramaditya, or the Sumbut, is in use north of the Nerbudda; and that of Saca, or Salivahana, south of that river. There is a difference of 135 years between the two eras, that of Vicramaditya exceeding the other by the length of time above specified. This river is also occasionally named the Reva, but the country about Omercuntuç has never yet been explored by any European traveller; an event very desirable, as tending towards the completion of the geography of Hindostan.—*(Blunt, Colebrooke, Wilks, Walker, Forbes, &c. &c.)*

Tuptee *(Tapati)*.—This river has its source in the province of Gundwana, near the village of Batool, among the Injardy hills, from whence it pursues a westerly direction through the provinces of Khandesh and Gujerat, until it joins the sea about 20 miles below Surat. The whole course, which is very serpentine, and through a fertile country producing much of the cotton exported from Surat and Bombay, may be estimated, including the windings, at 460 miles. The shoals crossing the mouths of the Tuptee and Nerbudda, are known to the Gujeratties by the names of Shorut and Dejbharoo. The first Mahommedan army that crossed the mountains, south of the Tuptee, was led, A. D. 1293, by Allah ud Deen, nephew and successor of Feroze, the reigning sovereign of Delhi.—*(Scott, Drummond, 12th Register, &c. &c.)*

Mahy River *(or Myhi)*.—This river rises amongst the hills of Malwah, district of Mandow, not far from the source of the Chumbul, from whence it first proceeds to the north, but afterwards sweeps round to the S. W. where it falls into the gulf of Cambay, in the district of Broach, having performed a course, including the windings, of about 380 miles. Although it flows through so considerable an extent of country, the mass of its waters never attain to any great magnitude.

Saubermutty River.—This river issues from the Dhaubur Lake, 20 miles

north of Doongurpoor, and from thence flows in a southerly direction towards the gulf of Cambay, passing Ahmedabad on its route. Including the windings its course may be estimated at 200 miles.

BANASS RIVER *(Vanasa)*.—The source of this river is in the province of Ajmeer, but the exact spot has never been ascertained. In passing through that country, it attains a considerable bulk, and even when pursuing its course from Deesa through the Mehwas, its size is not insignificant, but it afterwards loses itself in the Kakreze, and by the time it reaches Rahdunpoor, is reduced from various causes to a small stream. Three miles below Rahdunpoor, the bed of the river is about half a mile in breadth, but not more than 20 yards of this space in the dry season contains water. The current at this period is rather rapid, and about two feet and a half deep; the water of an excellent quality. In this part of its course the banks are nearly on a level with the surrounding country, which is inundated during the rains to the extent of two miles. About 25 miles below Rahdunpoor it is lost in the great salt morass named the Runn. —*(Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

MEHWAS.—The term Mehwas ought only to be applied to that portion of the Gujerat province named the Kakreze, but of late years, Theraud and both the Neyers have been included in the denomination, owing to the disorderly state of the society. The word Mehwas signifies the residence of thieves, but it is now used to designate a country through which it is difficult to pass, from whatever cause. The villages in this tract greatly resemble each other. There are a few tiled houses, but the majority are in the shape of a bee-hive, thatched, and exhibit a miserable appearance both within and without. Besides the family, it usually affords shelter to a horse and a couple of bullocks or cows.

In this very turbulent region, any chief who can muster 20 horsemen, claims and extorts a tribute from villages belonging to a power, on which he acknowledges himself to be dependent, and to which he pays tribute. Theraud levies contributions from villages in the Sachore district of Joudpoor, from Wow, and from many villages in the Rahdunpoor territories. Merchants, travelling in the Mehwas, pay stated sums of money to particular Coolies, who ensure their safety as far as a certain point, but beyond that limit plunder immediately. Jamajee, of Therah, about 50 years ago, resolved to build small fortified posts to check the Mehwas, but they were found unavailing. The Rajpoots here have nearly become Mahommedans; they have adopted so many customs peculiar to the followers of the prophet. Their attendants are chiefly Mahommedans, and like the Jahrejahs of Cutch, they make no scruple in eating what has been cooked by a Mahommedan, or even of eating with him.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

PUTTUNWAR.

This district occupies the north-western corner of the Gujerat province, and has as yet been but very imperfectly explored; its limits are, consequently, especially to the north, very ill defined. To the west it is bounded by the Runn. The principal streams are the Banass and Sereswati.

Forty years ago, the district immediately attached to the town of Puttun belonged to Kumaul ud Deen, the father of the present Nabob of Rahdunpoor; but he was then compelled by Dammajee Guicowar to abandon all pretensions to Puttun and its nine dependent pergunnahs. The country is now but thinly inhabited, and much exposed to the ravages of the numerous predatory tribes in this quarter of Gujerat, but it contains the ancient metropolis of that province, named Nehrwalla, or Puttun; the seat of government having been subsequently transferred by the Mahommedan Sultans to Ahmedabad. The appellation, Nehrwalla, is written Anhulvâda, and signifies the field of Anhul; in modern times it is known to the natives by the name of Puttun, or the city. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, the district is described as follows: "Circar Puttun, containing 16 mahals, measurement 3,750,015 begahs; revenue 600,325,099 dams; seyurghal 210,327 dams. This circar furnishes 715 cavalry, and 6000 infantry." The town of Puttun is situated on the south side of the Sereswati river, which here in the dry season rolls a feeble stream, about 65 miles N. by E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 48′ N. long. 72° 2′ E.—*Macmurdo, Abul Fazel, &c.)*

Neyer.—This small district is situated at the north-western extremity of the Gujerat province, and has never been properly explored. To the west it approaches the Runn, and the country generally is of an arid and sandy nature, without rivers or streams. Water, for drinking, is procured from wells, but these in some seasons afford but a precarious supply. Nor are the inhabitants better than their country, consisting principally of Coolies, a proportion of Rajpoots, and of late years Mahommedans, who are all, conjointly and severally, thieves and depredators. The principal town in this province is Wow, to the westward of which are Bakasir, Gurrah, Rhardra, the latter being about 40 miles west from Wow. Neyer abounds with horses of a quality superior to most parts of the province, which enables the plundering Rajpoots to extend their ravages over a great tract of country as far as Jhingwara, in Gujerat. The Coolies here are armed with the teerkampta, and with a stick curved like the blade of a sabre, which is smoked and made extremely hard. This weapon they can throw 120 yards, at which distance they assert they can break a man's leg, or kill him if they strike the head.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

THERAUD.—A town and district in the north-western frontier of the province of Gujerat. Lat. 24° 15′ N. long. 71° 32′ E. The pergunnah of Theraud is bounded on the north by Marwar, Sanjore being 30 miles N. N. E. from the town. On the west it is bounded closely by Wow, which is only distant 12 miles. To the south it has Babere, 30 miles distant; and on the east the district of Deesa, in which direction its territory extends 40 miles. Within these boundaries it is said to contain 33 villages, yielding a revenue to Hirbumjee, the chief, of 20,000 rupees, while his expenses exceed 60,000, the difference being made up by plundering his neighbours. In this whole district there is not a river, and few of the villages are supplied with a tank. At the town of Theraud water is found about 60 yards below the surface, but it is not always of a good quality, and the wells from which the villages are supplied are frequently brackish. The scarcity of water entirely prevents the cultivation of vegetables, of which, with the exception of onions brought from Rahdunpoor, Theraud is destitute.

The natives of the country subsist chiefly on bajeree, all classes being too poor to purchase wheat; their other articles of food are the milk of cows and camels, and the flesh of goats and sheep. The Theraud district furnishes excellent camels and good horses, many of the latter are also imported from Bhaudra, situated to the westward, where the breed is still superior. The cultivators are tolerably well treated by their chiefs, who are restrained from extreme oppression by the threat of deserting and retiring to an adjacent village, probably the domain of an enemy or rival.

The town of Theraud contains about 2,700 houses, 300 of which are inhabited by Banyans; the remainder by Coolies, Rajpoots, and Sindeans. It is surrounded by a wall and ditch, the latter about 30 feet deep, but both in a very bad state of repair. By the natives of the adjacent country it is esteemed a place of great strength, and it is so against predatory troops, in a country without artillery. With the exception of the court house and the Parishat temples, it contains few good buildings. Most of the wells are brackish, and the surrounding jungle comes close up to the walls. This place is situated so near to the borders of Sinde, that constant inroads are made by parties of marauding cavalry from the tract between between Theraud and the Indus, The Theraud chief can muster 1,300 cavalry, well mounted, 300 of whom are his family horsemen, or troops related to him by marriage or caste, and who reside in the durbar or court house. The others are Sindeans, and are a species of local militia. Both town and pergunnah have long been tributary to the Joudpoor Raja, who is always obliged to send a very large force when he wishes to levy tribute.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

JETRA.—A fortified town in Gujerat, about 24 miles E. from Theraud. In 1809 this was a place of some strength, and its chief could muster about 700 men, with which he levied contributions from the villages in the Theraud pergunnah.

Wow.—A fortified town in the district of Neyer, situated about 10 miles S.W. from Theraud. Lat. 24° 11′ N. long. 71° 23′ E. This town is much more populous than Theraud, and may be considered the capital of Neyer. In 1809 it contained not fewer than 1,000 Rajpoot families of rank and credit. Formerly the whole tract of country as far as Theraud on the east, Gurrah and Rhardra on the west, Sooeegaûn and the Runn on the south, and Sanjore on the north, were subject to the Ranny of Wow, a Chowan Rajpootnee (female Rajpoot).—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

DANDAR *(Dhandar)*.—The name of a small district in the Gujerat province, situated to the north of Palhanpoor, and so named in allusion to its extraordinary fertility. According to the report of a native Moonshee sent to examine this and the adjacent tracts, it contains 180 towns and villages, but this appears too liberal an allowance.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

PALHANPOOR.—A town in the north-west quarter of the Gujerat province, situated about 80 miles N. by W. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 24° 11′ N. long. 72° 20′ E. The pergunnah attached to this place is in the Myhie Kaunta division, and in 1813 was reckoned to contain 130 villages, producing annually about two lacks and a half of rupees. The boundaries of the district are nowhere more than 40 miles from the capital. To the north are the lands of Kheyraloo and Sidpoor, belonging to the Guicowar, to which there is an open road. The town of Deesa is distant to the west about 12 miles; the country between them a plain. The town of Dhunteewara is 15 miles distant towards the north, and the intermediate country is level and intersected by the river Banass. To the north of Dhunteewara is Sooree, a district of a mountainous surface. The savage character of the Coolie inhabitants throughout this tract, and the great natural obstacles opposed to the passage of troops by impervious woods and narrow defiles among rocks and hills, tend to retain its natives in their present state of semi-independence and entire barbarity.

The fort of Palhanpoor was built by Bahadur Khan in the year of Vieramaditya, 1806, is of brick and mortar, with 29 towers, mostly in a state of great dilapidation, and about one mile and a half in circumference. There are also two suburbs adjacent, and the whole surrounded by a ditch 12 feet deep and 22 broad. The gates are defended by ravelins, in which there are some small guns,

mostly from two and a half to five pounders. In 1813, it was reckoned to contain the following number of houses:

Belonging to Banyans	800
To Koonbees	200
To Maulies and Cacheras	100
To Cusbatty Mahommedans	1,600
To Sindeans unemployed	200
To nine different classes of artificers	3,200
Total	6,100

In a political point of view the situation of Palhanpoor in the Gujerat province, is of considerable importance, as it is the outlet to Ajmeer or Rajpootana, and borders on the desert which separates Gujerat from Sinde and Cutch. The tribute paid to the Guicowar is 50,000 rupees per annum.

In the reign of Acber, Ghizni Khan first brought this place into notice, that emperor having also assigned him the charge of various other places, such as Jalore, Sanjore, (then possessed by the Chohan Rajpoots); Theraud, (by the Vagela Rajpoots); Deesa, (by the Cusbatty Mahommedans); and Bhalmul, by another tribe of Rajpoots. From that period under many vicissitudes of fortune his descendants are said to have remained chiefs of Palhanpoor.

In 1808, a decennial engagement was concluded with the Jemadar Furreed Khan, at that time in charge of the government of Palhanpoor, confirmed by the security of the British government, for the regular payment of an annual tribute to the Guicowar, on the principle of the settlement effected by Colonel Walker in Cattywar, which terms were punctually executed up to the year 1813. In that year information was received at Bombay, that the dewan or chief of Palhanpoor, Feroze Khan, had been assassinated by the commander of the Sindean garrison, and that Furreed Khan had died suddenly, so that the place was left exposed to all the contentions of a disorganized government. It became consequently necessary for the British authority to interfere, to effect the restoration of the Guicowar's authority, and the entire expulsion of the Sindean faction. It was also of importance to allay the prevailing dissentions, and restrain a propensity to effect revolutions common to all the petty states of Hindostan, and extremely prejudicial to industry and good order, as well as inconsistent with the respect due to the Guicowar, the feudal superior, and to the security pledged by the British government.

An inquiry was in consequence instituted regarding the political circumstances of this petty state, when it was discovered that the Sindean garrison of

Palhanpoor had assassinated the dewan Feroze Khan, imprisoned his son and mother, and, being for some short time in possession of the sovereignty, had placed the chief of Deesa on the throne. They also disputed the right of the Guicowar to interfere with the internal affairs of the principality. The immediate heirs to the succession were the sons of Taje Khan, lineally descended from the founder of the state, but they were both disqualified for the exercise of authority, the elder from mental incapacity, the younger from blindness. The next in propinquity was Futteh Khan, a descendant of the senior branch of the Palhanpoor family; but there was another claimant in the person of Shumshere Khan, the chief of Deesa, whose cause was espoused by the Sindean garrison, and whose pretensions, according to native ideas, were better founded than those of Futteh Khan, his nephew. To reconcile these conflicting interests, the former, who had no son, was appointed guardian to the latter (a boy,) and induced not only to bestow his daughter on him in marriage, but also to adopt him as his heir generally, by which all differences in this respect were amicably adjusted.

The expulsion of the Sindean garrison still remained, to effect which a British detachment under Colonel Holmes approached the town, which, after a tedious and vexatious negociation, was surrendered without resistance on the 15th of December, 1813, thereby preventing the lamentable consequences that would have followed the storming of so populous a town. The subsequent arrangements provided for the due administration of affairs during the minority of Futteh Khan, who having been constituted heir to the possessions of Shumshere Khan, and of the fortresses of Deesa and Dhennasa, the state of Palhanpoor was by this consolidation rendered more respectable in itself, and more efficient as a tributary. To secure the Guicowar's interest, 200 of his militia were left in temporary charge of two of the gates of the fort, but subject to the orders of Futteh Khan, and with a view to the immediate tranquillization of the town and neighbourhood, 300 of the Bombay native infantry under European officers were left in garrison, to be withdrawn as soon as the object was effected. The expenses of the expedition, amounting to three lacks of rupees, were defrayed by the Palhanpoor chief, of which 230,000 fell to the share of the British government, and the remainder to that of the Guicowar. Thus concluded an attempt to revolutionize the principality of Palhanpoor, which escaped the fate of many of the petty states of Gujerat; their history through many generations exhibiting an uninterrupted scene of anarchy and turbulence, terminating in the establishment of the power of mercenary soldiers with every aggravation of oppression. *(Public MS. Documents; Carnac, &c.)*

DEESA.—The fort of Deesa was begun by Bahadur Khan, and finished by Shumshere Khan, its present chief. According to native reports this place had once 500 villages under its subjection, chiefly inhabited by Bheels and Mewassies, whose rebellious and obstinate dispositions nearly prevented the collection of any revenue. The town is situated about 12 miles west from Palhanpoor. Lat. 24° 9′ N. long. 72° 8′ E. and in 1813, Shumshere Khan, its chief, maintained a force of 300 foot and 100 horse.—*(A native Moonshee, &c.)*

SIDPOOR.—This place stands on the north side of the river Sereswati, 68 miles N. N. W. from Ahmedabad, and 28 from Mehsani, on the road from the south to Palhanpoor. Lat. 23° 55″ N. long. 72° 19′ E. It is tributary to the Guicowar. *(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

WERREAR.—This district extends along the north western frontier of the Gujerat province. The country lying between Rahdunpoor and Patree on the north and south, and from Beecharjee to the banks of the Runn, is called Wuddyar, or Wurryar, for which name the inhabitants say it is indebted to the excellent quality of its grass, it being resorted to by immense herds of cattle, sent to pasture on the banks of the Runn. Wuddyar, or Wandyar in the Gujerattee language signifies a herdsman, by which class the banks of the Runn were originally inhabited.

Throughout the whole of Werrear fowls and sheep are cheap and abundant; the price of the former being five for a rupee, and the latter half a rupee each; but goats are a greater rarity. It also produces a number of horses of a smaller breed than those of Cattywar; but horses of a good quality being in great demand few are exported, and those principally to the Joudpoor territories. This tract of country is much infested by plundering Coolies, the principal dens of these robbers being at Warye, 14 miles S. W. from Rahdunpoor; Barbere, 24 miles north (belonging to the Coolies); and Therwara, 30 miles N. W. from Rahdunpoor; the last possessed by the Baloochees.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

RAHDUNPOOR.—This is a town of considerable extent, situated about 125 miles in a N. W. direction from Baroda, the Guicowar's capital. Lat. 23° 40′ N. long. 71° 31′ E. It stands in a wide and open plain, and is surrounded by an ancient brick wall, with towers at regular distances, but the whole is in a state of decay. It has also an inner fort or castle, a town wall, and another wall, the whole enclosed by a dry ditch about 20 feet deep, and in some particular parts it has a double ditch. The town of Rahdunpoor is said to contain above 6000 houses, 1400 of which are inhabited by Banyans and money changers, some of whom are men of property and extensive commerce. Owing to its geographical position, it is a kind of emporium for the trade of Marwar and Cutch; but the roads are frequently greatly infested by the plundering Coolies. The staple

commodities furnished by this city are ghee, wheat, and hides. The ghee is sent to Cutch, and the two latter to Bhownuggur, on the gulph of Cambay, from whence it is exported. No manufactures of any consequence are carried on here, except one of very coarse cloth for the Coolies. The inhabitants are mostly employed in pastoral and agricultural pursuits, by which they have brought the vicinity of the town into a high state of cultivation. Wheat is usually sold for a rupee per maund, for which sum only three-fourths of a maund of bajeree are obtained.

The river Banass passes withing three or four miles of Rahdunpoor, but, except during the rains, is never full. The road to Ajmeer leads off to the north, across a ridge of mountains by the town of Sachore; the pass in the Runn is situated near Ranavay; about 30 miles N. W. from Rahdunpoor, and subordinate to its authority. There is another pass in the Runn, at the village of Gurrah Santil, 40 miles W. of Rahdunpoor, on the high road from Luckput Bunder and Sinde to Gujerat, which is much frequented. The scarcity of water, and the general sterility of the soil, would render it nearly impossible to convey an army into the Gujerat province by the Rahdunpoor pass, if the invaders were opposed by the local authorities.

Jewan Khan Murd Babi by his valour and family popularity possessed himself of the soubahdary of Gujerat, and, although he never received a regular investiture from Delhi, continued to exercise a sovereign authority, and made the annual collections for a considerable period. In 1774, Ragoonath Row invaded Gujerat with a large army, and in due time laid siege to Ahmedabad, which was surrendered by the Babi on very advantageous terms, extorted from the Maharatta chiefs by his long and gallant defence. In addition to his regular jaghire of Rahdunpoor and Sommee, this treaty secured to him the districts of Puttun, Burnuggur, Monjeepoor, and Bejapoor, all situated in the vicinity of Rahdunpoor. Damajee Guicowar, after the departure of Ragoonauth, finding the power of the Babi's still too great, deprived them of Puttun and all the other districts, with the exception of their original jaghire, with Monjeepoor and Theraud annexed. Notwithstanding these privations, the late Nabob Ghazi ud Deen Khan supported the dignity of the Babi family, and his capital was the refuge of the most respectable and noble Mahommedan families, when in the wane of their power they fled from Ahmedabad.

On the death of Ghazi ud Deen differences arose between his two sons: and the eldest, Shere Khan, who held Rahdunpoor, applied to the Guicowar government, and to the British resident at Baroda, for their interference; while the younger, who held the fort of Sommee, invited Futteh Mahommed, the Jemadar of Cutch, to his assistance. Soon afterwards the chief obstacle to a peaceable

negotiation being removed by the death of the younger son, the British government, in 1813, interposed its good offices to tranquillize this petty state and maintain the legitimate succession. An agreement was in consequence entered into, by the conditions of which the Guicowar state is empowered, under the mediation of and with the advice of the British authorities, to controul the external relations of this principality, and the Nabob engaged to abstain from all communications with foreign powers, except with the knowledge and under sanction of the Guicowar. On the other hand, the latter bound himself not to interfere with the internal affairs of Rahdunpoor, except with the advice and concurrence of the British government; and he also agreed to assist the Nabob in defending his territories against invasion by an enemy, the expenses to be defrayed by the state succoured. The Rahdunpoor Nabob, having in this manner recognized the supremacy of the Guicowar, consented to make an annual acknowledgement thereof by presenting a horse and cloths through the representative of the British government at Baroda, the Guicowar's capital. By this arrangement the influence and controul of the Guicowar, in concert with the British authorities, was extended to the borders of the great desert separating Sinde from the province of Gujerat.

No tribute was ever exacted from the Rahdunpoor Nabob by any of the predominating Maharatta governments; but, being on strict terms of friendship with the Guicowar state, he undertook to guard the two passes into Gujerat from Sinde and Ajmeer. To support his authority, which, on account of the rude tribes that compose the mass of his subjects, would be otherwise precarious, he retains mercenaries from Sinde, to which province his country is contiguous, and through them controuls the wild habits of the Coolies. These last cannot be employed as regular soldiers, for no discipline can teach them subordination, but on an emergency their services are procurable at no greater expense than that of their daily subsistence while so employed. The large district of Jutwar, and also those in which the populous towns of Morwarra, Sooeegaum, and Theraud are situated, being tributary to Rahdunpoor, now also fall under the supremacy of the Guicowar government. When the Nabob of Rahdunpoor was efficient, a considerable portion of Wagur in Cutch was also tributary to him, and his claims are still uncontested. At present the annual revenue of the four places in the possession of the family is about 150,000 rupees; 80,000 of which is disbursed in military charges to about 350 cavalry and three or four byrucks. The Nabob's establishment consists of three palanquins and two elephants, the small remnants of ancient splendour.—*(Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

GOOCHNAUTH.—A village in the Gujerat province, situated on the south bank

of the Banass river, about three miles S. E. from Rahdunpoor. The country immediately adjacent is in a high state of cultivation, and the fields in some places enclosed.

MONJPOOR.—A small town belonging to the Nabob of Rahdunpoor, 55 miles N. W. from the city of Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 33′ N. long. 71° 50′ E. The fortifications of this town are insignificant. The surrounding country is more enclosed than the contiguous districts, and has a rough and rugged appearance. *(Carnac, &c.)*.

SOMMEE.—This is the Nabob of Rahdunpoor's capital, and is situated about 15 miles S. E. from that town. Lat. 23° 32′ N. long. 71° 43′ E. Sommee is a place of considerable size, surrounded by a wall, which is in many places falling to pieces. In the inside, although the houses have generally an upper floor, they make a very wretched appearance. The town stands in a swamp, is encompassed by many puddles, and during the rainy season is nearly under water. To the north-west is a plain destitute of wood, but partly cultivated, and abounding with antelopes. The Nabob of Rahdunpoor usually keeps his court at this place, while the heir apparent resides at Rahdunpoor.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*.

KAKREZE.—A district in the north-eastern quarter of Gujerat, which commences at the town of Oon, about 15 miles north of Rahdunpoor. In 1809 it contained the following principal places:

1. Deodur, the chief Poonjajee, a Wagella Rajpoot.
2. Turrah, the chief Tezabhoy, a Coolie, late a Rajpoot.
3. Seoree, the chief Kinjarjee, a Batesir Coolie.
4. Moondetah, the chief Kagojee, a Coolie.
5. Kakor, the chief Poonjajee, a Coolie.
6. Oon, the chief Prithi Raj, a Coolie.
7. Balgaum, the chief Prithi Raj, a Coolie.
8. Ranningpoor, the chief Prithi Raj, a Coolie.

Therah may be considered as the present capital of the Kakreze, the greater part of which was formerly under the Rajpoots of Deodur, from whose authority it was wrested by Chillabhoy, a Coolie, who fixed his residence at Turrah: Kakreze was increased to the extent of 84 villages in the time of Koombajee his son, and it afterwards descended to Jamajee, who raised his family a step by marrying a Rhatore Rajpootnee (a female Rajpoot).

Jamajee reigned about 60 years ago, at which period a great many Coolies were subject to his government, but, as is their nature, very refractory. Many years before his death he had been in the practice of concealing himself so effectually, that, except his wife, no person knew of his being alive. A sham funeral was performed which inveigled the Coolies into acts of rebellion, and then he

made his appearance and inflicted a severe punishment. This had happened so frequently, that for three years after his death the fact was not credited. His wife, Raj Bhye, was his successor, and so much esteemed by Futteh Singh Guicowar that he confided to her the charge of Kakreze and Puttunwara, until his death, which happened above 50 years ago.

The town of Oon, like the rest of the district, is now occupied by a petty independent chief. Deodur is the place of most strength, and can muster from 300 to 400 cavalry well mounted, and nearly 2000 infantry, on urgent emergencies. In this district the dead are buried without the lamentations which usually accompany funeral obsequies in Gujerat.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

TURRAH *(or Therah)*.—This town is situated about half way between Theraud and Rahdunpoor. Lat. 23° 52′ N. long. 71° 41′ E. It is an open town containing about 2500 houses, 1500 of which are the property of Coolies, the other inhabitants being Rajpoots, Koonbees, Banyans, &c. To the north of Therah, which may be considered as the present capital of the Kakreze, the country is cultivated, but interspersed with bushy jungle, and very deficient in water, which is procured from wells 40 feet deep, some of which are brackish. The present chiefs of Therah are Tezabhoy and Jalim Singh, who divide between them a revenue of ten villages, amounting to about 35,000 rupees per annum.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

DEODUR.—A town in that portion of the Gujerat province, named the Kakreze, situated near the north western boundary, about 19 miles S. by E. from Theraud. Lat. 24° 1′ N. long. 71° 35′ E. This place contains about 1000 houses, the greater part of which are inhabited by Rajpoots and Coolies.

OON.—This town is situated on the borders of the Kakreze territory, about 15 miles to the north of Rahdunpoor, and is celebrated for the thievish disposition of its inhabitants. It is an open town with one long bazar street, the houses of which are tolerably well constructed, and several have upper stories. It contains about 2000 houses, 800 of which are inhabited by Coolies.

TEHRWARRA.—A town in Gujerat, about 15 miles N. from Rahdunpoor. Lat. 23° 53′ N. long. 71° 25′ E. In 1809, this place nominally belonged to Kumaul Khan, but was in fact a den of thieves, who neither paid tribute to the Khan, or acknowledged his authority.

MOREWARA.—This is a populous town, situated about 19 miles N. W. from Rahdunpoor. Lat. 23° 48′ N. long. 71° 15′ E. It has not any defences, but it has a large tank, and is in every respect a flourishing place. The surrounding country is much infested by the predatory Coolies, who are fortunately greatly afraid of fire arms.

JUTWAR.—A district in the north-eastern quarter of the Gujerat province,

which extends along the Runn morass, and is intersected during the rainy season by several branches of the Banass river, by the Sereswati, and the Roopeyne. Although this tract is more particularly designated as the country of the Juts, or Jhuts, yet the name has a most comprehensive extent, for the provinces on the east side of the Indus, subject to Cabul, are peopled by a class of Hindikees called Juts, who also compose the Mahommedan peasantry of the Punjab, form the principal population of Sinde, and are found mixed with Baloochees throughout all the south-west of Balochistan and Muckelwaud. In Balochistan they are termed Jugdalls, as well as Juts; and the tribe of them inhabiting Lus, is called by the name of Jokhna and Noomree. From the manners, appearance, and customs of this tribe, there is reason to believe that the Juts, whereever placed, were all originally Hindoos, and converted to the Mahommedan faith after the Arabian invasion, and the immense space through which they are now scattered, renders a more particular investigation of their origin and history desirable.

The tribe of Juts at present occupying this district, are of Sindean extraction, the caste being common both in Sinde and Cutch. They are a very turbulent predatory race, and carry their ravaging excursions, at particular seasons, to a great distance from their own precincts; after which, until next year, they are absorbed into, and remain undistinguished from the rest of the population. They profess the Mahommedan religion, and in their manners resemble the Baloochy tribes; but they do not intermarry with the Mahommedans of Werrear. They kill cows without scruple, and eat the flesh of oxen in preference to any other.

Although the Juts are plunderers by birth, parentage, and education, yet many portions of their own territories are populous and well cultivated, the tribe not being deficient in industry. They have a race of slaves among them, who not only perform menial offices, but also attend them on their marauding excursions. These slaves they brought with them on their first settlement and are named Sumehja, which is the name of an inferior tribe formerly very numerous in Sinde. In 1809, Humeer Khan, and Omar Khan were the principal Jut chieftans, and, as well as their relations, were frequently at war with each other; but on occasions of public danger the whole family unites, and private dissentions ceases.

The Jut women exercise an influence over the men, which is rarely found among Mahommedans, and a woman can, when she chuses, leave her husband and marry another. When this divorce is determined on, she assembles all her female acquaintance, and attacks her husband, demolishes his furniture, and

continues to persecute him until he acquiesces in a separation. The Jut women are plain in their persons, and dress in coarse black cloths, which do not improve their appearance; yet they are held in great respect by the men, and a traveller cannot have a better protector from these plunderers than one of their own females. In 1816, several British villages in the pergunnah of Dholka, were plundered by a body of 800 Juts, who were pursued and might have been destroyed by a party of his Majesty's 17th Dragoons, but that the magistrate did not consider himself authorized to pursue them into the Peshwa's territories, without direct permission from Poona.—*(Macmurdo, Elphinstone, Pottinger, &c. &c. &c.)*

WARYE.—A town in the Jutwar district, situated about 12 miles S. W. from Rahdunpoor. Lat. 23° 33′ N. long. 71° 22′ E. This is an open town protected only by a ditch, which is in many places filled up with thorns and rubbish.

LOLLARA.—This place stands about 23 miles S. E. from Rahdunpoor, and contains about 1000 houses, inhabited principally by Naroda Rajpoots, Mahommedans, and Rajpoots who have been converted to that faith. Lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 71° 42′ E.

PATREE.—A town in the Jutwar subdivision of the Gujerat province, 44 miles S. S. E. from Rahdunpoor. Lat. 23° 7′ N. long. 71° 51′ E. This is a large and populous place, defended by three distinct walls, the inner of which is enclosed by a small ditch, which even in the dry season contains a considerable quantity of water. In remote times Patree was esteemed a city of considerable strength, and it makes a tolerable figure in the histories of Gujerat; but the fortifications are now in a state of decay, and in many places falling to pieces. A beautiful tank extends along the north face, and renders an attack from that quarter altogether impracticable, and the town on the whole may be reckoned one of the strongest in India. To the north the country is tolerably well cultivated; but much interspersed with milk bush, and low baubool trees, the rind of which is a strong astringent.

Patree originally belonged to the Raja of Darangdra, formerly an independent principality in the Gujerat peninsula, but which became the property of the present family through the interest of the Peshwa's government, which they had served for a number of years. The present chief is of the Kombee caste, and only entitled Dessoy, although he is in reality the Thakoor (lord) of the place and its dependencies. The inhabitants are chiefly Rajpoots and Koonbees (cultivators), and the latter, when tilling the field, are seen armed with the bow and arrows of the Coolies.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

BUJANA.—A large and populous town in the Gujerat province, district of

Jutwar, situated on the south bank of the Runn, which here in December is in many places merely moist sand, and in others an extensive sheet of shallow water. Lat. 23° 5′ N. long. 71° 50′ E. In 1809, the chief of Bujana was a Jut, named Mullick Shujah, who, in concert with his brother Derea Khan, managed the district. He is appointed by the Mullick of Bujana, and is installed by having a turban conferred on him.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

WAWAL.—This place contains 300 houses, and stands on the banks of the Sereswati, a small stream of salt water, which, during the rains, overflows its banks, but at other seasons is everywhere fordable. It is situated a few miles south-east from Rahdunpoor.

DUSSARA.—This town contains about 1300 houses, the greater part of which are possessed by Kusbaties, the remainder of the population being Coolies, Rajpoots, and other castes; besides a few Banyans. Lat. 23° 16′ N. long. 71° 51′ E. Dussara, with 12 surrounding villages, is the property of a Mahommedan zemindar, named Mullick, whose family came originally from Mooltan. The authority, in 1809, was possessed by two relations, one of whom resided in the small fort, and the other in the town. One of their ancestors about A. D. 1209, was put to death by the Raja of Hulwud, for having committed gowhattia (cow killing), and is now held in great veneration as a saint by the adjacent Mahommedan inhabitants. His tomb is on the banks of a large tank in neighbourhood of the town. The military force of Dussara is composed of 2000 horsemen of the Mullick caste, and 100 infantry, who are kept on the alert in preventing the depredations of the Juts. From Dussara towards Addrianna the country is tolerably well cultivated, the inhabitants consisting of Coolies and the inferior castes of Rajpoots.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

WURGAUM.—This village is situated about five miles N. N. E. from Dussara in a rich and level country, amply supplied with tanks of good water, and remarkable for the abundant crops of wheat and grain which it produces.

THE GUJERAT PENINSULA.

This territory is situated principally between the 21st and 23d degrees of north latitude, and occupies the south-western extremity of the province, to the main land of which it is joined by an isthmus. To the north it is bounded by the gulf of Cutch and the Runn; on the south and west by the Indian Ocean; and on the east by the latter and gulf of Cambay. In length from east to west it may be estimated 190 miles, by 110 the average breadth. The general name of Cattywar for the Gujerat peninsula was applied by the Maharattas, being probably first opposed there by the Catties, whose active and roving disposition

gave them the appearance of greater numbers than the reality justified. At present the principal geographical and political subdivisions are the following:

1. Cattywar,	4. Okamundel,	7. Goelwar,
2. Jhalawar,	5. Burudda,	8. Arratum.
3. Hallaur,	6. Babreawar,	

And the chief towns and petty states—

Noanagur,	Soreth, or Junaghur,	Bhownuggur,
Bate,	Diu,	Gogo,
Juggeth, or Dwaraca,	Durangdra,	Palyad.
Poorbunder,	Goundul,	

The principal river of the peninsula is the Bhadur, which issues from a hill named Mandwa, in the eastern parts of Cattywar, near Jusdun, and flowing in a southerly direction falls into the sea near Nuveebunder, 12 or 15 miles south of Poorbunder. The whole length of its course in a direct line is about 90 miles, and in the monsoons small boats navigate as far as Kattiana, 18 miles from its mouth. Besides the above stream, there is another named the Bhadur, which rises on the opposite side of the hill, and falls into the upper part of the gulf of Cambay. Next to the Bhadur is the Muchoo river, which has its source among the Sirdhar hills on the borders of Hallaur, and disembogues by many outlets into the Runn, or swamp, at the head of the gulf of Cutch, near Mallia. The Muchoo has a rocky channel, generally low banks, and a direct course of about 65 miles. The Ajee river appears first not far from Sirdhar, flows past Rajcote, and pursuing a westerly direction falls into the gulf of Cutch near Balumba. Gold dust is found in the bed of the Ajee in small quantities near Rajcote, the chieftain of which place has rings and other ornaments made of the gold picked up in that vicinity. The Sutrinje has its source on the western side of the hills, which form a part of the Junaghur cluster, and pursuing an easterly and southerly course falls into the sea near Tullaja, in the pergunnah of Gogo. All these rivers receive a great many tributary streams and rivulets (according to the natives, the Bhadur receives ninety-nine), the whole peninsula being remarkably intersected with excellent and clear running water, and their banks occasionally presenting picturesque scenes of romantic beauty. Many of these have poetical names, such as the Roopa Rete, silver waves; Phooljer, studded with flowers; and Nagne, serpentine.

The mountains here are few and of no remarkable elevation. Cholula is noted for the wildness of its appearance, and the barbarity of its inhabitants; and the mountain of Pulletana in Goelwar, for the Shrawuk temples on its summit. The loftiest of the Junaghur hills (named in Sanscrit, Rewtachil) is sacred, and

is surrounded by others of a smaller size with vallies intervening, the soil of which is composed of the earth and debris washed down from above. The Burrudda hills consist of a clump near Poorbunder, extending from Gomlee on the north to Kundorna on the southern extreme, about 20 miles; and all the clusters of hills above named send off branches in various directions, while other hills are detached and insulated, standing in plains, such as Ashum, near Gunode; Gope, near Gomlee; and Alies, near Dhaunk. The whole peninsula swarms with places of worship and reputed sanctity, among which may be enumerated Dwaraca, Bate, Somnauth, and Gernal. In some places hot winds prevail in May and June, but the general climate may be considered dry and healthy, with a westerly wind all the fair season. In December and January there are east and north-east winds, with remarkably thick fogs, which disperse at sun rise.

The following are the principal classes into which the inhabitants may be subdivided:

1. Rajpoots, such as the Jahrejahs, Jhalla, Goel, and Jetwah.
2. Catties, of which there are three principal families, Walla, Khacher, and Khooman.
3. Coolies, Kauts, and Sindees, called also Bawars.
4. Koombees, Mares, Aheers, Rehbaries, and other industrious tribes.

The Bhatts are more immediately connected with the Rajpoots, and the Charons with the Catties. A great majority of the petty chiefs of this country are of the tribe of Jahrejahs. According to the ancient history of this race, their best ascertained establishment was in the province of Sinde; but tradition tends to impress the belief, that they once extended under different denominations throughout a great part of Persia, when they were said to have worshipped different gods from the other Rajpoots. From Sinde they were probably expelled by the early invasion of the Caliphs. As it is, the Jahrejahs, Catties, and many other tribes calling themselves Hindoos, are but very superficially instructed in the doctrines of their own faith, and their claim to be considered within the Brahminical pale but very slender, although they believe in all the Brahminical legends. The sun and the Matha Assapuri are in fact the real objects of their worship; their tenets, with respect to purity and impurity of eating, are by no means rigid, and they drink spirits in public. Under the title of Matha Assapuri they venerate the goddess of nature, named also Hinglais Bhavani, to whom, in Cutch, the Jahrejahs have erected a temple named Assapuri, where a buffaloe is annually immolated. The name of Jahrejah is ascribed to the fabulous origin of the four Yadoos, who escaped from the battles of Krishna, and were protected by Hinglais Bhavani.

Among the chiefs of the Jahrejah tribes, the remarkable and inhuman custom of female infanticide universally prevailed, until they were induced by the interference of the British government to put a stop, at least in appearance, to the practice, none of the prior governments that attained an ascendancy in India having ever attempted to suppress the custom. For its prevalence, various causes have been assigned. Pride, avarice, the cares of a family, the disgrace attending female misconduct, the difficulty of procuring them suitable establishments, and the apprehension of exposing them to inhuman treatment; all these combined have influenced the Jahrejahs in perpetuating the practice of female infanticide. The Jahrejahs, however, in this were not wholly singular, as the custom has also been discovered to exist among the Rhatore Rajpoots of Joudpoor and Ajmeer, and the perpetration of the same crime has been traced to the Jauts, to a Mewatty race of Mahommedans, to the Hari of Boondee and Kotah, the Waish, the Cutchwa, and to the Rajpoot tribes generally. Indeed, the birth of a daughter is considered by most sects of Hindoos as an inferior event, and is rarely marked by any festivity or exultation.

The Jahrejahs carefully select wives from the most respectable Rajpoot families; but prefer those of the Jhallas, sprung from the Goel, Churassana, Punnar, Surweyo, Jaitwa, Wala, and Wadal tribes. Such legitimate daughters as they preserve, they give in marriage to these castes; illegitimate daughters are bestowed on Mahommedans, or on Hindoos of impure caste indifferently, on which account the latter are not put to death like the others. It is remarkable that the concubines frequently burn themselves with the deceased Jahrejahs, which is rarely done by their wives. When Row Lacka, grandfather of the present chief of Cutch, died, 15 concubines burned at his funeral pile; but not one of his wives performed the sacrifice, although there is no law against it. Of these concubines two were Mahommedans, one a Seeden, and the rest Hindoos of different castes. This painful ceremony is less expected from the wives than from the concubines, who frequently consider it a point of honour to burn with their deceased lords, each inspired with the dreadful emulation of becoming the first victim. It may be necessary here to correct an opinion entertained by many Europeans, that these sacrifices are compulsory. The Jahrejah's wives and concubines are at liberty to follow this custom, or abstain from it, neither disgrace or opprobrium attaching to those who chuse to survive. It may be mentioned as another extraordinary deviation from Hindoo customs, that in the district of Hulwud, the wives of the lowest castes invariably burn with their husbands.

By the persevering exertions of Mr. Duncan, then governor of Bombay, and of Colonel Walker, commanding the detachment in Cattywar, the Jahrejahs

were at length induced to sign a paper, agreeing to abolish the practice of female infanticide, which document comprehended within its obligations all the chieftains and leaders of any consequence within the Gujerat peninsula; but the crime itself is one of which it is extremely difficult to obtain proof. According to native testimony, when a woman is taken in labour, a large pot of milk is placed in the room, into which, if the birth be a female, it is immediately thrown and suffocated. One estimate, in 1807, stated the number of infanticides throughout the whole peninsula at 5000 annually, while another raised it to 30,000; both founded on very uncertain data, and it is probable that, although greatly reduced, it is still secretly practised; the sentiments of nature and humanity having long been so stifled by the passions of avarice and pride, that the right of destroying their daughters became a privilege, and regarded as a dignified distinction of caste.

In 1812, Witul Row, the Guicowar's chief functionary in the Peninsula, in hopes of satisfying the anxiety of the British government, established mehtahs, or scribes, in the principal Jahrejah towns, with instructions to communicate the birth, preservation, and murder of female children, as soon as they received information of these occurrences; but the jealousy with which these men were regarded, rendered their exertions nugatory; and so long as no Jahrejah would himself communicate the condition of his wife, they found it in vain to seek information from any of his neighbours. Indeed, it would require very extraordinary exertions to arrive at the knowledge of the domestic transactions of 5000 families particularly interested in their concealment. In this country, no man without a reward will accuse another of an act, considered a crime by the ruling power, but which is looked on by themselves and their countrymen, not only without horror, but with approbation; and if by accident, they did inform, their motives might be traced much oftener to a spirit of revenge, than a sense of justice. This observation applies to the natives of Hindostan generally, but more especially to those among them who practice the cruel religious observances, which require mystery and solemnity to impose on the ignorant an impressive notion of their sanctity. No native, therefore, unless urged by a deep-rooted enmity, will accuse another of an action deemed criminal by the government, but bearing among them the appearance of preternatural approbation, and reported as a practice of the caste from the fabulous ages.

Although no strict evidence had been afforded of any Jahrejah having destroyed his offspring, since his engagement to abandon the practice, still, as the preservation up to 1816 of only 15 females could be vouched for, a strong suspicion remains, that the practice of female infanticide in this quarter has not

yet been eradicated. To the universality of the practice, the Raja of Moorvee may be mentioned as an honourable exception, he having strictly adhered to his engagement, and reared two of his female children. In that year, the resident at Baroda suggested to the Bombay government, that it would tend to accelerate the extinction of the practice, if the East India Company would defray or assist the expense of their nuptials; but this proposal, on account of the strong injunctions to economy, annually received from the Court of Directors by that Presidency, was declined. The expense of marrying the daughters of the different Cattywar chiefs was as follows: The daughter of the Jam of Noanagur, 35,000 rupees; of an inferior raja, such as Moorvee, Goundul, or Raujcote, 15,000 rupees; a near relative to the last, 7000 rupees; and the marriage of a poor jahrejah's daughter, from 1000 to 1500 rupees.

Throughout this tract of country, the population is universally subdivided among Bhyauds (brotherhoods), under which term are comprehended the relations of the rajas, who have villages assigned for their maintenance, which their descendants continue to enjoy, but which, on a failure of heirs, revert to the chief. In the Rajpoot families, the younger brethren receive a certain portion of their father's property: but among those who are merely Grassias, the property of the father is equally divided among the younger sons; the eldest, in particular cases, receiving one share more than the rest. In the chieftain's family, the claims of the younger brother extend no further than a subsistence, which generally amounts to one or two villages. The immediate brothers, or sons of the chieftain, have the choice of living in the family, or of receiving their share of the villages.

The possessors of these villages and their descendants are the Bhyaud, or fraternity of the principal chief. In their own villages they are independent, but contribute their portion to the general tribute levied from the country. It results from these connexions, that the brotherhoods, according as they are actuated by the ties of blood and personal attachment, or stimulated by jealousy and enmity, are either a powerful support to the domestic strength of the chief, or a source of incessant agitation and alarm. Being all Rajpoots by caste, they are of course soldiers by profession, and perform military service in the defence of their villages and in the feuds of their chief; but as this employs only a small part of their time, and they contemn all other vocations, they are generally immersed in idleness and dissipation. The increasing subdivision of property by descent, is a never-ending source of animosity and family dissention, and frequently at last it becomes altogether inadequate to the subsistence of the numerous claimants. The distraction originating from this cause is aggravated

by the endeavours of the superior chiefs to keep their possessions entire by secret and violent means; to which were formerly superadded the depredations of the Catties, Juts, and the people of Wagur and Mallia.

In this state of family connexion, the Rajpoot tribes are distinguished by a great degree of personal independence; and all assert the right of revenging personal wrongs, real or imaginary; from which also originates the practice of protecting fugitives and criminals, on a principle of honour which is scarcely ever violated. A Grassia, when he conceives himself insulted, frequently quits his native village with all his tenants and dependants, which is allowed to continue waste, and retreats to some convenient refuge, from whence he can gratify his revenge, and carry on his depredations with impunity. The number of small fortresses with which the country is overspread, and the want of artillery, render it easy for a fugitive to obtain an asylum from whence he may infest his enemies. The right of private war is consequently universally asserted, and contests ensue frequently from frivolous causes, but always ruinous and destructive to the country. The forces employed consist principally of cavalry, and their exploits in the laying waste of each other's villages, and the driving away of the cattle, until mutually exhausted by their respective excesses, a compromise ensues. On such occasions, coosamba is drank together by the contending chieftains; this potion being here as in Cutch, to cause oblivion of the past and of hereditary enmity, and to sanctify the recent reconciliation and future friendship. Under these circumstances it is fortunate, in the absence of a stable government, that the influence of religion, or rather superstition, has some effect in restraining their turbulent propensities. The veneration in which the Bhatts are held, and the inviolability of their persons, are assented to by the most uncivilized, and were repeatedly brought into action during the negotiations of the British government with the different chieftains of the Gujerat peninsula in 1809.

After the death of Aurengzebe, when the Mogul empire fell to pieces, the Maharattas were the only power in India, which had the political union essential to the consolidation of jarring interests, had it been consistent with their character to respect the independent rights of other countries, and to abstain from predatory habits; but as the object of their policy in making incursions into foreign territories, proceeded from the desire of plunder, the establishment of their sovereignty over the petty states of the Gujerat peninsula does not appear in any instance to have been effectuated; the different petty chieftains having, by complying with their pecuniary demands when resistance was unavailing, purchased their forbearance.

Prior to 1807, the whole of this territory had been for many years tributary to the Guicowar, but as may be inferred from the above description of its con-

dition, the revenue derived from it was altogether precarious, and could never be realized without the periodical march of an army. By this mode of procedure, both parties suffered extremely; the country being annually ravaged, the revenues dissipated, and the society excited to such a state of turbulence and commotion, as to threaten to disturb the tranquillity of the neighbouring districts. In this emergency, the Guicowar having requested the advice and mediation of the British government, a detachment from the Bombay army was in 1807 marched into Cattywar, under Colonel Alexander Walker, which expedition had three objects in view: viz. 1st, the reduction of Mallia and Khundadar, two dens of robbers; 2d, the suppression of piracy; and 3dly, to influence the negotiations then pending with Cutch. The whole of these objects were satisfactorily effected, and a perpetual settlement concluded with the different chieftains of the peninsula, who engaged to pay their tribute to the Guicowar in future, without waiting the periodical advance of an army to levy it. Colonel Walker's report in that year stated, that the settlement of these revenues on account of the Guicowar was 979,882 rupees; but the piratical and predatory states required further coercion, and were accordingly fined in the following sums; viz.

	Rupees.		Rupees.
Bate Isle . . .	110,000	Gondul	25,000
Junaghur	40,000	Jooria	20,000
Dwaraca . . .	18,181	Bhownuggur . .	25,000
Positra	55,000	Khandadar . . .	25,000
	223,181	Jooria	50,000
		Wandia	75,000
		Moorevee . . .	25,000
			245,000

By these proceedings of the British government, order and consistency were established among the several little communities, and tranquillity restored in a mode consonant to the sentiments and peculiarities of the country.

In 1814, when the lease of Ahmedabad was expired, and the farm was restored to the Peshwa, he deputed officers to take charge, whose conduct was in the highest degree unjustifiable. He also attempted to establish a right of interference in the concerns of the peninsular chiefs, which on general principles of policy could not be permitted, these chieftains having for ages past maintained their internal independence. No sovereigns of Hindostan had ever reduced them to subjection, or drawn from their territories a regular portion of the produce of the soil; they having invariably found it more advantageous to

accept a pecuniary compensation than to prosecute a doubtful contest to extremity. On these grounds the British government opposed every attempt on the part of the Peshwa to introduce a greater degree of authority into Cattywar, than he had prior to the treaty of Bassein and the settlement of the Cattywar tribute. This settlement has been usually termed "decennial," but the term referred to the collateral security, renewable every ten years, according to the custom of the country; the tribute, in lieu of the Moolock Geery claims (to prevent invasion) on the Cattywar chieftains, having been fixed in perpetuity, and while they continued to fulfil the engagements they had contracted, the British government was pledged to secure to them the privileges they had derived from their ancestors. With the view of accomplishing this object and of excluding all foreign influence, in 1818, the farm of Ahmedabad was tendered to the Guicowar, in lieu of half the Cattywar tribute, and being accepted by him, the management of this turbulent peninsula has since rested entirely with the British government.—(*Walker, Macmurdo, Carnac, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.*)

Nagne River.—A small river in the Gujerat peninsula, which rises in a range of hills 14 miles to the south-east of Lawria, passes the city of Noanagur, and afterwards falls into the shallow part of the gulf of Cutch, here called the Runn. The name of this river is derived from a fabulous traditionary story, of an enormous nag, or snake, which dwelt in a tank among the hills; and, endeavouring to escape from his enemies, burst the bank, and formed the channel of the river. Its waters are esteemed by the natives as having a quality peculiarly suited for the dyeing of cloth.

CATTYWAR (*Cattivad*).

As has been already mentioned, this appellation is frequently applied by the natives to the whole of the Gujerat peninsula, although in fact it only occupies a portion of the interior, distinguished into four divisions: 1st, reckoning from the north, is Punchal; 2d, Bansawar; 3d, Alug; 4th, Khooman. The division of Cattywar Proper is bounded on the north by Jhallawar; on the south by Babreeawar; on the east by Goelwara; and on the west by Soret. The northern tracts are of an unequal surface; and southern in the neighbourhood of Babreeawar (which may be said also to belong to Cattywar), jungly and woody. *Vad*, a fence or division in the Gujerattee language, is a very common termination for the names of districts in this quarter, which syllable is frequently changed into *var*, and *war*, by Europeans, as Cattywar, for Cattivad. The soil and appearance of this district are variable, but in general the first is of a sandy nature, much mixed with a reddish coloured rock, of which last substance, the

hills are composed. These, although not lofty, are numerous, and being deficient in wood contribute to give the surface a barren and uncultivated aspect. Its produce in grain is confined to the coarser sorts, among which bajaree and joaree are abundant and excellent, to which may be added a second or after harvest of wheat, available in February. This last crop is promoted by irrigation from the wells, with which the southern parts of Cattywar abound. The horses reared on this territory are reckoned the best breeds of the peninsula, and the Catties themselves give a preference to that of the Choteela hill. In some parts of Cattywar wood and fuel are so scarce, that frequently the inhabitants of a village are expelled merely for the sake of the fire-wood available from their dwellings.

Like all other nations the Catties are desirous of asserting an ancient, heroic, and miraculous origin. Their traditions ascend to the conclusion of the Dwapar Yug, when the five Pandoos, by bad luck or foul play at hazard, were compelled to quit their native country, and remain in secret exile for 12 years. At the end of seven years they arrived at Berat, or Dholka, where they were discovered by the spies of their enemy Durjhodun. To oblige them to emerge from their concealment, and thereby forfeit the pledge they had given to remain secret, Carna, the offspring of the Sun, and prime minister of Durjhodun, suggested the expedient of making a predatory attack on the cattle of Berat, which would compel every true Rajpoot warrior to quit the fortifications to effect their recovery. But for so base a scheme Rajpoots could not be employed, which difficulty Carna removed by striking a rod he held in his hand on the ground, the rod opened and out issued a man, who, being produced from wood, was termed Khat. On this newly created being devolved the task of stealing the cattle, and to reconcile him to the enterprize he was informed by Carna that the gods would never reckon the commission of a robbery criminal in him or his descendants, more especially when the property abstracted consisted of cattle. Of Carna the Catties continue to speak with veneration, and to worship the Sun his father, inscribing the figure of that luminary on every written deed and document which they have occasion to execute.

The same traditionary accounts state, that the Aborgines of the country, before the arrival of the Catties, were the Aheers and Babreeas; the latter said to be descended from the Aheers by a Coolie mother; and they continue still to intermarry. After their arrival in the Gujerat peninsula, the Catties wandered about with their flocks for many years on the great pastoral wastes, and embraced every opportunity of plundering their neighbours. About 260 years ago it is supposed some of them became stationary. The first regular settlements were Sudamra, Guddra, and Bhudlee, within the limits of which they were long confined. Most

of their subsequent acquisitions were made on the decline of the Mahommedan power, when they occupied large tracts of country, which, from incessant dissension, had returned to a state of nature. In 1807, they still followed their vocation of thieves and robbers, which appellations they openly assumed; and at that date their most celebrated leaders were the chiefs of Dhundulpoor, Sudamra, Choteela, Morwar, Sejukpoor, Bemora, Choubarrea, and Anunpoor.

The Catties, as a tribe, are difficult to class. The three principal families are the Tratcher, the Trowa, and the Walla, some of whom profess to be horse-breeders. The Aheers, or herdsmen, who appear to have been the aborigines of the country, mostly compose the mass of the cultivators, and with them many Catties have intermarried. In one respect they differ essentially, as a genuine Catty never pays any fiscal demand, or parts with any portion of his own rearing. Several Catty chieftains pay revenue, but it is realized from the herds and cultivators. The tribe is not numerous, and their mode of life is unfavourable to an increase of population; as besides their predatory habits externally, the Catties are never without domestic feuds and private animosities, prosecuted with extreme treachery and cruelty; to which causes may be added the plundering expeditions of the Guicowar, the Peshwa, the Nabob of Junaghur, and the Jam of Noanagur, which harassed the inhabitants, suspended the cultivation, and depopulated the villages. The different petty chiefs possess many small fortresses where they secure their plunder, but they are principally formidable from the excellence of their horses, and the celerity of their movements.

On their pillaging expeditions the Catties, who are all cavalry, hire mercenaries, both to augment their numbers and procure matchlockmen, it being esteemed by them disgraceful to carry fire-arms. When they cannot procure mercenaries of good caste, Dheras and Guddaees are taken, and to the latter, as their name implies, all the captured asses are assigned. The Catty horse-breeders sell the males, but reserve the mares for their own riding, in preference to the horses, on account of the disposition of the latter to neigh. They are greatly afraid of fire-arms, and easily deterred from attacking where they expect to meet with them. On this account small mud towers are erected at a distance from villages, to which the cultivators retire with their cattle when the approach of the Catties is observed.

The Catties are distinguished by two general appellations; Shakarjut, the descendants of a Walla Rajpoot and Catty female; and the Oortea, who are the descendants of the original Catties. The Aheers and Babreeas may be considered as belonging to the latter class; but in Cattywar the prejudices of caste have but little influence. All the sons of a Catty succeed equally to the property

of their father; but the daughters are excluded from the inheritance. They may marry any number of wives, but they generally restrict theselves to two. They are greatly under the influence of their females, who are proverbially graceful and beautiful, and who frequently alleviate the miseries of the prisoners, whom their husbands put to the torture to extort large ransoms, or the discovery of concealed treasure. The male Catties are in general athletic men, whose dress does not materially differ from that of the Rajpoots and Grassias, except that they wear a peaked turban.

When an elder brother dies, leaving a widow, she invariably becomes the property of the younger brother, unless she altogether decline any future connexion for life. The wife of the younger brother, on the death of her spouse, is left to do as she pleases. When a Cattrijanie (female Catty) dies, her nearest relations take possession of the moveable property and of the children, who are thus withdrawn from their father, and educated by the relations of their deceased mother. All criminal offenders against society find refuge with this tribe, who seldom betray them, although very treacherous to each other. They are all addicted to spirituous liquors and opium, both of which they take to excess.

The Catties worship the sun, but they have only one temple, situated near Thaun, which contains an image of that heavenly body. Their priests are Rajgors, whose functions appear limited to the performance of marriage and of obsequies for deceased ancestors. Their religious feelings are but feeble, and they possess no litany or form of prayer. Placing their hands in a posture of adoration and looking at the sun, they supplicate his favour in such extemporaneous language as their conception of his omnipotence suggests. On the days of funeral solemnities, in place of throwing food to the cows as is done by other Hindoo castes, they give it to the lapwings. As may be supposed, they are very superstitious and rely greatly on omens, the most important of which is the call of a partridge, to the right or left, the last being an auspicious signal. Before commencing an expedition they invoke the favour of the sun, Bheenath, and such other gods as they place confidence in, promising them a share of the spoil. When a sum of money is thus promised to the sun, the amount is expended in victuals, and eaten in his name by his votaries in the village.

That this territory has enjoyed an era of greater prosperity than it now presents, may be inferred from the fact, that when Col. Walker's detachment marched through Cattywar in 1807, it passed 30 towns and villages waste and destroyed; of the buildings some vestiges were still visible, but of many others nothing remained but the sites and foundations. Such of the villages as had not been deserted were mortgaged to creditors by their chiefs, whose children and relatives were hostages for the payment of the revenue. Reduced to this

extremity, rapine and open robbery were their only resources, and these they exercised without the slightest remorse or shame, openly proclaiming themselves thieves and robbers. In this exigence, Colonel Walker's first operations were to reduce the forts of Khundadar and Mallia, which served as depots for the plunder of the Catties and Meannas, and by affording an asylum encouraged their depredations. By these and other well concerted measures, Colonel Walker succeeded in curbing the licentious disposition of the Meannas, and in settling the affairs of the turbulent Catties; but little dependence can be placed on a tribe of such predatory habits, averse to labour and subordination, and having nothing to lose, prone to resort to pursuits tending to gratify their wandering inclinations and love of plunder.—*(Walker, Macmurdo, Drummond, &c. &c.)*

CHEETUL.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 83 miles N. N. E. from Diu Head. Lat. 21° 42′ N. long. 71° 9′ E.

DAUMNAGUR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 78 miles N. N. E. from Diu Head. Lat. 21° 34′ N. long. 71° 35′ E.

GARIADHAR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 44 miles W. from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 30′ N. long. 71° 41′ E.

PAYLAD.—An inland town of the Gujerat peninsula, district of Cattywar, 46 miles west from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 22° 14′ N. long. 71° 41′ E. At this place there was a detachment of the Bombay army permanently stationed, in 1809, for the protection of the British interests in this quarter of Gujerat. Its position is about 12 miles west of Ranpoor, which was formerly the most westerly British military post in the province.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

SIRDHAR.—This was formerly a place of consequence, the chief of which controuled 700 villages; but the possessions of the family have gradually diminished to their present insignificance, and Ranjcote has become the seat of government. It stands nearly in the centre of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 22° 3′ N. long. 71° 5′ E.—*(Walker, &c.)*

JHALAWAR.—This district occupies the northern portion of the Gujerat peninsula, extending along the gulf of Cutch and the Runn, between the 22d and 23d degrees of north latitude. By Abul Fazel it is described as follows, under the name of Chalawar, and in his time had much more extensive dimensions than can at present be assigned to it. "Chalawareh was formerly an independent country, but is now subject to the governor of Gujerat, and inhabited by the tribe of Chalah." The modern division of Jhalawar is said by tradition to derive its name from the tribe of Rajpoots, who still principally possess the land. Their original seat of authority was at Dhama, now a small village between Adriana and Jhingwara, where, at a very early period, the family of Durrangdra (from whom the Jhala chieftains are descended), are said to have

resided, but at present no traces remain of its former grandeur. The face of the country is level, and, excepting in the neighbourhood of villages, destitute of wood. The chief grain produce is wheat, of which a considerable quantity is exported to the different markets of Gujerat. Cotton is also an important export, either directly to Cutch, or by the routes of Dollerah, Gogo and Bhownuggur.

The Rajpoots in this part of Gujerat are divided into three classes; the Jeenamas, the Kuraria, and the Naroda. The first are respectable, and addressed with the title of jee; the scond have resigned some part of their rank, and perform menial offices; the last have wholly relinquished their military character, cultivate land, and are now degraded to the rank of Koonbees, or cultivators. But even these last in this distracted territory must resort to arms, as every cultivator is obliged to carry his weapons with him to the field he tills; and at the different villages a person is mounted in a high tree to announce the approach of horse, and afford time to the villagers to drive in their cattle, which are their principal riches. When these are seized by depredators, they are usually driven across the Runn into Wagur and Cutch, where they find a ready market. As may be supposed under such circumstances, a great part of the district is but thinly inhabited, and remains in a state of nature, although some appearances authorize the conjecture, that it formerly enjoyed a superior condition. The principal towns are Durrangdra, Wudwan, Limree, Hulwud, Wankaneer, and Morevee. It has long been under nominal subjection to the Guicowar, but he derived little revenue from the territory until 1807, when by the able measures adopted by Colonel Walker, the Jhalawar chieftains agreed to pay a fixed tribute in perpetuity of 295,574 annually. On this occasion, although the country was relieved from a permanent burthen, yet the Guicowar government actually derived a much larger revenue than ever had been received before.—*(Walker, Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

DURRANGDRA.—The Durrangdra Raja is the chief of all the Jhala Rajpoots, and enjoys the privilege of being seated on a cot, while the other chieftains are placed on a carpet. The town is situated about 40 miles east of Mallia, lat. 22° 54′ N. long. 71° 35′ E. but at present the seat of the principality is Hulwud. In 1807, the annual tribute to be paid to the Guicowar was fixed at 74,000 rupees.—*(Walker, &c.)*

HULWUD.—This town stands about 33 miles E. by S. from Mallia, and is the modern capital of the Jhala Rajpoots. Lat. 22° 51′ N. long. 71° 16′ E.

LIMREE.—This is a monied town in the Gujerat peninsula, the shroffs, or bankers, of which possess such capital and influence, that they greatly regulate the currency of the country. The town is situated 11 miles S. S. E. from

Wudwan, lat. 22° 36′ N. long. 71° 54′ E. and in 1807, paid tribute to the Guicowar, amounting to 51,931 rupees.—*(Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

WUDWAN.—This is a town of considerable extent and population, being about the size of Sylah, and possessing a fort of considerable strength almost new. It stands in lat. 22° 42′ N. long. 71° 47′ E. and belongs to a Rajpoot family celebrated for their skill and bravery in predatory warfare, and was, in 1806, besieged for two months without success by the Guicowar's army. In 1807, through the mediation of Colonel Walker, the tribute payable to that potentate was permanently fixed at 28,831 rupees.

Ghee, hemp and leather are brought to this place from Puttunwara in waggons, and carried from hence to Bhownuggur, on the gulf of Cambay, from whence they are exported by sea. Formerly these caravans required an escort of from 20 to 50 matchlock men, who were paid at the rate of one-fourth of a rupee for 30 miles distance. It is customary at the villages in this quarter to place a man on the top of a high tree, and when he perceives horsemen, he waves a flag and springs a large rattle, after which the village drums beat to arms, and the combatants repair to their respective posts.—*(Macmurdo, Walker, &c. &c.)*

CHOWERA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 30 miles E. by N. from Wankaneer. This place stands on an eminence, and is surrounded by a high stone wall with square towers in a ruinous state.

SYLAH *(or Saeela)*.—A large fortified town in the Gujerat peninsula, possessed by a Rajpoot chieftain, but formerly tributary to the Guicowar. It occupies more ground than Wankaneer, but is not so well fortified. To the south it has a large sheet of water which covers that face. Lat. 22° 33′ N. long. 71° 37′ E. *(Macmurdo, &c.)*

LONSIR.—A village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated about 15 miles N. E. from the town of Wankaneer, to whose chief it belongs. From hence to Choorvera the country has a very wild appearance; the hills are bleak, and partly covered with a wild prickly shrub, while the plains are overspread with short thick jungle, presenting few traces of cultivation. The villages are miserable in the extreme, and being generally placed on the most prominent point of a black rocky mountain, are only distinguishable by the smoke ascending from their hovels. The inhabitants of these villages are chiefly Catties, Bheels, and Rickbarries. A similar description of country extends all the way to the Choteela hills.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

WANKANEER.—This town stands on an angle formed by the conflux of the river Muchoo with an inferior stream named the Patalia. It is long and narrow, and surrounded by a great wall with towers and bastions, comprehending about

5000 houses, with a good bazar. A pious Mahommedan Sheikh has here erected an elegant mosque, but unfortunately the sacred recess for prayer is not due west (looking towards Mecca), and the whole is consequently useless. The town lies so directly under a range of lofty mountains that it is entirely commanded, and during the rains the Patalia inundates the streets. In the dry season, however, it diminishes to a slender stream in a low bed, owing to which circumstance its name is derived from Patala, signifying the infernal regions. Wankaneer stands in lat. 22° 27′ N. long. 70° 58′ E. and, in 1807, had its quota of tribute to the Guicowar fixed by Colonel Walker at 18,000 rupees.—*(Macmurdo, Walker, &c.)*

MOREVEE.—This is the principal town of the district of Muchoo Kaunta, or the country lying on the banks of the river Muchoo, and is situated about 21 miles south from the Runn. Lat. 29° 39′ N. long. 70° 58′ E. The town and lands attached were granted to the ancestors of the present family (a younger branch of that of the Row of Cutch) in the 37th year of the reign of the Emperor Acber, in return for the surrender of the unfortunate Sultan Muzuffer of Gujerat. In 1809, Kooer Dosajee, the chief of this place, was prevailed on by Colonel Walker, to renounce the practice of female infanticide, and in 1816, was mentioned by the Bombay government as an honourable exception to the other Jahrejah chiefs, who were supposed still to perpetrate the crime in secret.

DHYRSA.—A small village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated near the Rŭnn, in the district of Morevee. At this place are many funeral monuments, one of which is in commemoration of a mother who voluntarily burned herself with her son; these immolations not being restricted to the death of a husband. The river Phoolyer, with a small clear stream and high rugged banks, runs past this village.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

MALLIA.—A fortress in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the river Muchoo, which, having passed Wankaneer in the interior, empties itself into the Runn, two miles and a half below this place. The surrounding country is low, and slopes off towards the Runn; in the rainy season it is a marsh for many miles. Lat. 22° 56′ N. long. 70° 55′ E.

Prior to 1809, Mallia was occupied by a Sindean tribe of Meannas, who had been settled here for several generations, and from their first establishment had gained such an ascendancy, that they plundered the country and committed the most atrocious acts of cruelty with impunity. These Meannas were principally infantry, and excelled in the use of the sword. Many efforts had been made by the neighbouring chieftains to extirpate this banditti, but all their efforts were unavailing, and only increased the reputation of the robbers, whose strong hold came to be considered as impregnable. In 1809, when Colonel Walker's detach-

ment was sent from Bombay to restore tranquillity to this long distracted country; one of his first undertakings was the rooting out of this den of thieves, who depopulated the country for many miles round Mallia, and obliged the inhabitants to desert their fields and villages. He accordingly encamped under the walls, and the garrison who defended it having rejected every attempt at negotiation, it was determined to attempt it by storm in open day, a few hours after the opening of the batteries, and in the presence of many of the native chiefs.

In storming Mallia, the resistance in the first instance was small, although the foot of the wall was found lined with a doolcote, which is a strong work thrown up composed of thorns and earth, but as the assailants advanced it became more serious, and the durbar, or court-house, which was surrounded by a high wall, afforded a retreat inaccessible to assault. An 18-pounder and some sixes were in consequence opened on it, but the evening was too far advanced to admit of the operations being completed. The effect however was such, that during the night it was evacuated by the enemy, except a few who staid to maintain an occasional firing, while the rest fled across the Runn into the province of Cutch, among whom was the chief Jahrejah Dosajee. On this occasion 31 Europeans and 51 sepoys were killed and wounded; and it is remarkable that Captain Mackenzie, who led the storm, and Captain Wilkinson, died from the mere violence of their exertions, without a wound or a scratch.—*(Macmurdo, Walker, 11th Register, &c.)*

BALUMBA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch. Lat. 22° 40′ N. long. 70° 36′ E.

WOWAMIA.—A small fishing town in the Gujerat peninsula, about six miles distant from where the fortress of Mallia stood. Lat. 22° 50′ N. long. 70° 47′ E. This place stands on the Runn, and here there is a ferry established for transporting passengers to the Cutch shore. It forms a small independency possessed by a native chief.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

SONGHUR.—A village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated in a wild country, about 25 miles N. W. from Wankaneer. On a hill adjacent to this place is an ancient Hindoo temple, dedicated to the sun; on the cornices and sides of which are representations of battles, carved on marble slabs, and in a style much superior to modern Hindoo sculpture. The hill on which it stands appears to have been formerly fortified, and the remains of houses executed in the above style are still visible.

HALLAUR *(or Halawar)*.—This division derives its present name from Halla, a Jahrejah chief, and comprehends the whole of the country conquered by his descendants. The boundary of this territory on the north is the gulf of Cutch;

on the west the Burudda mountains, the ocean, and Okamundel; on the south the river Bhadur and Cattywar; on the east the district of Muchoo Kaunta, and Jhalawar. The eastern parts are hilly and rocky, but the soil in general is light and well adapted for the cultivation of bajaree, jowaree, and in some parts wheat. The bajaree of Hallaur, and the cotton from the upper parts about Amrun and Jooria, are exported in considerable quantities to Cutch, and thence to Bombay. This district is not generally fertile, but there are particular spots in a high state of cultivation. Trees are seldom to be met with in Hallaur, to remedy which the Jam of Noanagur ordered the heads of villages to plant a certain number of mangoe trees annually. The Hallars never shoe their horses, yet they gallop at full speed over the worst ground, their hoofs becoming as hard as the rocks they tread on. They also make a practice of suspending rags on trees, and piling stones on each other by the road side. An itinerant devotee hangs a piece of his garment on a tree, which rag is seen by travellers, who follow the example of the sage, and the tree becomes a consecrated peer or saint, and is styled the Chintra Peer, or ragged saint.

According to native traditions the four Jadoos, who escaped the fate of their brethren, were preserved in Sinde by the care of the goddess Bhavani Hinglais. One was concealed in her mouth, hence the Jahrejahs; one under her bangles, hence the Churassuma; one under her cushion of state, hence the Churkutta; and one in the fire-place, hence the Bhatties. To the Jahrejahs she assigned Sinde; to the Churassumas, Soreth; to the Churkutta, Hastinapoor; and to the Bhatties, Jesselmere. Such is the fabulous history of the Halla Jahrejahs; but at present few of the independent chiefs trace their lineage beyond Rawul, the youngest son of Raj Humeer, the sovereign of Cutch. This prince (Rawul) usurped the throne of his father, but was afterwards compelled to resign it to his brother, and leave the country. He in consequence crossed the Runn at Mallia, and proceeded to Amran, which he seized, and finally established his head-quarters at a village named Nagne, where Noanagur now stands. He afterwards succeeded in cutting off the Rana of Poorbunder by treachery, and extended his frontier to the Runn of Okamundel. His followers he exhorted to conquer and keep what they could, so effectually, that in a few years this race of Halla Rajpoots had added 400 villages to their possessions, which subsequently received the name of Hallaur, an appellation it still retains.

The principal independent Jahrejahs, after the Jam of Noanagur, are the chiefs of Dehrole, Rajacote, Goundul, Kottra, and Drauppa; but the interior administration of these petty states is entirely in the hands of the Nagne Brahmins, who promote and encourage the dissipation of their respective chiefs: so that until the interference of the British, confusion, anarchy and dissension prevailed

in every division and subdivision of this miserable country.—*(Macmurdo, Walker, &c. &c.)*

NOANAGUR *(Navanagur, the new city)*.—The Jam of Noanagur, in respect to territory, revenue, and resources, may be reckoned the most considerable chieftain in the Gujerat peninsula. His capital stands in lat. 22° 55′ N. long. 70° 14′ E. about seven miles south from the gulf of Cutch. The district of Noanagur consists of four divisions, viz. Nuggur, Kumbalia (or Surya), Sutchana, and Jooria, the last of which has been alienated by the Khowas family. The country inland from this city is extremely rocky, but it produces plentiful crops of joaree, growing apparently out of the stones, so entirely is the soil concealed. What is sown in the narrow vallies in October is reaped in May and June. In the neighbourhood of the small villages the sugar cane is cultivated. This crop is so hazardous, that in India it is usually only raised under peaceable governments, where the peasantry are in good circumstances, and secure of reaping where they have sown. The expenses of agriculture here are comparatively small, water being so near the surface, and the Gujerat peninsula, generally, having many small streams with low banks, so as to admit of irrigation.

The town of Noanagur is asserted by the natives to be three coss in circumference, and defended by a wall of no great strength, built about 35 years ago. It contains many weavers who manufacture a considerable quantity of coarse and fine cloth, some sorts of a very beautiful fabric. From hence Cattywar is supplied with this article, which is also exported to other parts of Gujerat. The small river Nagne flows under the walls of Noanagur, and is supposed by the natives to possess some quality peculiarly favourable to the dyeing of cloth, for the excellence of which the town is celebrated. All the Noanagur villages within 12 or 15 miles of the Runn have walls for their defence. The cultivators generally pay one third of the produce to government, which appoints a person to value the crop; besides this, a tax is levied on animals, and another on men. Korees are struck in Cutch under the authority of the Row, and others under that of the Jam of Noanagur. It is a small handsome silver coin, with Hindui characters, and its average value four to a rupee. Not far from Noanagur, are two or three beds of pearl oysters, which contain pearls of an inferior quality; and even these by improper management are already nearly exhausted.

The appellation of Jam to the chieftain of Noanagur, is a title of honour which has descended from his ancestors. The Hindoos derive it from a Sanscrit source, and the Mahommedans from Jumsheed, a renowned sovereign of Persia, but they are both ignorant of its true import. It is, however, assumed by the chief of Noanagur only; the other chiefs of Hallaur merely prefixing the word Jahrejah before their names. Their sons are called Kooer. In the families of the

Row of Cutch, and Jam of Noanagur, when any chief ascends the throne, a Mattiny, or priest of the Dhers (a very low caste), steps forward, and with his blood marks his forehead. Until this species of anointment has taken place, none of his subjects salute him as chief, and the ceremony is repeated annually during the dusserah. The Jahrejahs generally have but little regard for any religion. In 1808, Jam Jessajee of this petty principality was considered a convert to the faith of Mahommed, of which he observed all the external forms, and held the Brahmins in execration.

The British government came first into contact with this native state in the year 1808, when Jessajee, the reigning Jam, engaged with the Bombay government not to permit, instigate, or connive at any act of piracy committed by any person under his authority, and also to abstain from plundering vessels in distress; reciprocal freedom of trade being permitted. In the same year, the perpetual tribute payable to the Guicowar state by that of the Noanagur chief was, through the mediation of Colonel Walker, fixed at 95,000 rupees. From this period the Noanagur government afforded the best example of good order and subordination to the other principalities of the Gujerat peninsula, in consequence of which, in 1815, the British government was induced to support the Jam against the rebellious proceedings of the Jooria chief, who had imported a large body of Arabs from Cutch, and treacherously possessed himself of several forts the property of Noanagur. On this occasion Jam Santajee, who had succeeded his brother Jessajee on the 5th August 1814, defrayed the expense of the Bombay detatchment, amounting to 850,000 rupees, a portion of which was assigned over to the Guicowar, part of the force subsidized by him having been employed.—*(Macmurdo, Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

RAUJCOTE.—A town near the centre of the Gujerat peninsula, the chief of which, Kooer Dadajee, was in 1809 prevailed on to renounce the practice of infanticide. Lat. 22° 12′ N. long. 70° 57′ E. In 1808, the perpetual tribute payable to the Guicowar by the chiefs of Rajcote and Sindhar was fixed at 20,500 rupees.

GOUNDUL.—A central town of the Gujerat peninsula, 37 miles N. N. E. from Junaghur. Lat. 21° 54′ N. long. 70° 58′ E. This was originally a small village belonging to the government of Soreth, and most of the territory now possessed by the chiefs of Goundul was acquired from the nabobs of Junaghur, as remuneration for pecuniary assistance supplied them at different times. In 1808 these lands were tolerably well cultivated, at which period the perpetual tribute payable by the chiefs of Goundul to the Guicowar state was fixed by Colonel Walker at 115,000 rupees annually. In the next year, during the expedition of that officer through Cattywar, the Goundul Raja was fined for encouraging

the depredations of the Catties, permitting them to sojourn in his dominions, and conniving at the infanticide of his son's daughter.—*(Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

KHUNDADAR.—A fortress in the Gujerat peninsula, district of Cattywar, the site of which is uncertain. On the 16th June, 1809, it was surrendered to Col. Walker's detachment without resistance, when it was transferred to the custody of the chief of Goundul, who besides giving an equivalent to the native chieftain, contributed 25,000 rupees towards the expense of its reduction. The garrison consisted of 300 Sindean troops. While arranging the capitulation, the native chiefs of this place transmitted a petition to Colonel Walker, in which they designated themselves the thieves of Khundadar, and congratulated themselves in having him for their destroyer, as theywould thereby attain paradise.—*(Public MS. Documents, Walker, &c.)*

KUMBALIA *(or Surya)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, subject to the Jam of Noanagur, and situated near the gulf of Cutch. Lat. 22° 12′ N. long. 69° 46′ E. This place is populous, and contains many houses inhabited by Gogla Brahmins, who are attendants on Runchor (an incarnation of Vishnu) at Dwaraca.

SERYAH *(Surya)*.—A town on the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch, 40 miles E. by N. from Juggeth Point. Lat. 29° 19′ N. long. 69° 44′ E.

JOORIA.—A populous and thriving sea-port town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the gulf of Cutch, 24 miles N. W. from Noanagur. Lat. 22° 37′ N. long. 70′ 26° E. This place carries on a brisk trade with Mandavie and other places in the gulf of Cutch, and occasionally with Bombay.

SUTCHANA.—This town belongs to the Jam of Noanagur, and is situated to the east of that city. An extensive fishery is carried on along this part of the gulf of Cutch, and the dried fish are transported to the interior on horses and bullocks. The pearl oyster is also found here, and is made a source of revenue. *(Macmurdo, &c.)*

AMRAN.—A town and fortress with a small district adjacent, situated in the Gujerat peninsula, 22 miles S. W. from Mallia. Lat. 22° 41′ N. long. 72° 43′ E. Near to one of the adjacent villages is a monument erected to commemorate a traga, committed in 1807 by a Rajghur Brahmin. To deter his superior, Hirjee Khowas, from depriving him of some lands in the vicinity, he led his mother to the gate of Amran, and there cut off her head, which had the desired effect. Instances of this sort are frequent in Gujerat, and on most occasions the victim, whether male or female, not only consents to, but glories in the death inflicted. The person who is in many cases the innocent cause of the catastrophe, is considered by the Brahminical code as damned for ever; while the wretch, who,

for his own profit, perpetrates the murder, is not only held innocent by his fellow-citizens, but suffers no pang either of heart or conscience.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

OKAMUNDEL *(Ukamandala)*.—This district begins at Kumbalia, from whence west by south the surface consists of hill and dale, with a hard rocky soil. It presents a very wild aspect, few villages, no cultivation, and abundance of milk bush, well stocked with hares, partridges, and other species of game. This state of desolation was caused by the Positra plunderers, who reduced a considerable portion of the district to a waste, covered with jungle, in some places scarcely penetrable. These robbers were expelled by a Bombay detachment in 1809. The word oka signifies any thing bad or difficult, in which sense it is applied to this wild and uncouth district. In modern times the term Okamundel is principally applied to the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula, separated from the main land of Hallaur and Burudda, by a runn or swamp, formed by the sea making a breach from the north-western shore, near Pindtaruk; and extending in a south-east direction, again connects itself with the sea at Muddee, which is about 14 miles distant from Pindtaruk. The breadth of this channel gradually decreases; at Muddee it is not more than a mile, and is separated from the ocean by a low bank about 50 yards wide, which is wearing away. Twelve miles north from Positra this runn or swamp is five miles and a half broad, the bottom of firm sand with very little mud. The highest spring tides flood it to the depth of 16 or 18 inches; at other times it is dry, or merely moist, and may be marched across with ease. The Oka shore is much more abrupt and uneven than the other, and is thickly covered with milk bush, baubool, and similar wild and astringent shrubs. After ascending the coast, the descent into the country is gradual, the general level of the surface being much lower than the beach of the Runn.

In 1809, the whole district of Okamundel contained five forts and 27 villages. The first are Bate, Positra, Bhurwalla, Dwaraca, and Dhenjee. Amramra belongs to the Bhyaud, or brotherhood of Bate. Subject to Dwaraca there are 20 villages, containing in all not above 2000 houses, exclusive of the town of Dwaraca containing 500. The fraternity of Bate, including the villages belonging to Positra, possess only 500 dwellings, to which may be added the town of Bate containing 1000; so that the number of houses in the whole country does not exceed 4000.

The soil of Oka is in general a light red, and of no great depth, and jowaree and bajeree the only crops it is capable of yielding. Camels of an inferior description are bred here, the sea beach and extensive sandy slips, called Wudh, covered with shrubs, being favourable towards the rearing of this animal, which requires little care, and is suffered to roam wild among the jungles, where tigers

have never been found, although leopards have occasionally been seen. It is also well stocked with partridges, quails, hares, and hogs. The rock which abounds in Oka is much impregnated with iron ore, but very little is fused beyond what the blacksmiths require for building and repairing boats. Salt is manufactured in small quantities, and the shores abound with oysters and other shell fish. The population consists principally of Wagheres, a Hindoo race of men originally from Cutch, but who appear to possess as much of Mahommedan as of Hindoo principles, and their appearance and manners barbarous in the extreme. During the monsoon they were formerly accustomed, while their boats were laid up, to retire to their villages, where they cultivated grain for their own use, but paid no revenue; their law being plough and eat. The Rajpoot families in general form villages distinct from the Wagheres, and pay a consideration for their land and crops. The Brotherhoods are at present nearly independent of their nominal heads, and by their neighbours of Hallaur and Barudda, they are considered treacherous, but the opinion is probably reciprocal.

The piracies for which Oka has been celebrated are of very ancient date, and the natives continue prone to this mode of life, to which they are stimulated by the peculiar advantages they possess for carrying it on. Among these may be mentioned the numerous creeks, bays, channels, and inlets, by which the country is indented, and the reliance they place on the power of their deity at Dwaraca, his priests and attendants being the strongest instigators to depredation. In return they receive a certain portion of all plundered property as a recompense for the protection they receive from Runchor, while the expedition is at sea. Before embarking, it was a common practice for the pirates to promise a larger share than the god could claim by right, if he would ensure success and safety to their trip. Many vessels were fitted out in the name of Runchor, as sole owner, and actually belonged to the temple which received the plunder they brought back.

The ancient history of Okamundel, as narrated in the sacred writings of the Hindoos, is so mingled with fabulous tradition, that it is nearly impossible to separate truth from romance. These authorities, such as they are, derive its name from a celebrated demon of the name of Oka, who occupied this tract of country until he was slain by the deity Krishna. Such historical fragments as are now extant, commence about A. D. 1054, at which era the government of Oka was partitioned between the Herole and Chowara Rajpoots; the first governing at Goomtee, and the latter at Vusie, now a small village, eight miles south of Amramra. The Chowara had been the legitimate sovereigns of Gujerat,

and a family of this tribe were the last that reigned at Peerun Puttun, the ancient Nehrwallah.

Some branches of Rhatore Rajpoots, who at that time governed Marwar or Ajmeer, were about that time banished from that province, in consequence of internal dissensions; and among them were four brothers, Lucheram, Nirba Singh, Vyrâwuljee, and Vijuljee, expelled by their uncle Raja Jhuda, who founded the city of Joudpoor. The two last named brothers, after various adventures and attempts at settlement, proceeded southward with the view of performing the pilgrimage to Dwaraca. The Herole prince, who then reigned in Dwaraca, levied a tax on all pilgrims for permission to bathe in the sacred waters of the Goomty, which probably constituted the most lucrative branch of his revenue.

On the arrival of the Rhatore chiefs in Okamundel, they found the Herole and Chowara tribes engaged in a warfare, which appeared interminable, so equal were the resources, and so persevering the hostility of the respective parties. The Chowaras solicited the assistance of the Rhatores, which they pretended to afford, while at the same time they were plotting the destruction of both parties. In furtherance to their plot, they published to the Hindoo community, that the god Runchor (a partial incarnation of Vishnu) had given them the remains of his victuals, with the intimation, that a similar donation would be continued for ever. They invited the Herole family to partake of the sacred aliments at a feast; which invitation, unaware of the treachery contemplated, they accepted without hesitation. Their enemies, the Chowaras, were secreted by the Rhatores in a neighbouring spot, from whence they issued, while the Heroles were intoxicated, and massacred them; but they met with the same fate from the Rhatores, who put the whole to death as they had originally intended. After this slaughter, the Rhatore tribe dropped their distinctive appellation, and assumed that of Waddell; Wadd or Wadda signifying slaughter.

Okamundel being thus left without government, and thinly inhabited, was soon subdued by the Rhatores, who extended their dominions eastward as far as the river Vedamati, and the younger brother, Veejuljee, having marched southward, conquered Puttan Somnauth from the Nagree Rajpoots, and established a Rhatore sovereignty in that quarter of the Gujerat peninsula. During the lifetime of the elder brother Vyrawuljee, the seat of government was transferred to Amramra, which being on the sea shore appeared more eligible than Vusie, although commerce was not then encouraged, and the greater portion of the inhabitants being Wagheres or boatmen, piracy was probably their favourite pursuit.

The modern history of Okamundel commences about the end of the 12th century, since which period many chiefs have reigned, but to enumerate them would only expose a barren list of names all ending with the syllable jee. Sangan seems to have been a celebrated warrior or pirate, whose name is used to this day by the pirates of the gulf of Cutch, who call themselves Sangani, which may have given rise to the supposed existence of a race of men named Sanganians. This chief extended his sway into Hallaur as far as Kumballia, and also into the Rana of Poorbunder's territory. He was succeeded by his son Bheemjee; in whose reign, about 1462, Mahmood Begra, Sultan of Gujerat, conquered the island of Bate, demolished the temples, broke the images, and gave up the country to indiscriminate plunder. On the retreat of the Mahommedans, Raja Bheemjee returned, and gradually expelled the Sultan's garrisons; and from this period Okamundel appears to have experienced but little change, the Manick and Waddell families, after a lapse of several centuries, continuing still in possession of their original insular dominions. Those on the main land they were deprived of during the administrations of Meeroo Khowas at Noanagur, and Premjee at Poorbunder.

In 1774, Okamundel was invaded by the united forces of Noanagur, Gondul, and Poorbunder, the object of the allies being to punish the Wagheres of Positra for depredations committed on their villages. Positra was then taken, but its chief was reinstated on furnishing security for the correctness of his future conduct. After the British interference in 1809, the improvement of Okamundel was very tardy, the soil having been found extremely unfavourable for the operations of agriculture. Yet even under all these disadvantages, the produce of grain in 1812 was greater than it had been prior to 1809, which result was to be attributed to the persevering efforts of the British government for the suppression of piracy. The difficulty of withdrawing men from habits which had existed for many centuries, and which, in this particular instance, were also connected with religious prejudices, becomes infinitely more arduous when it is considered, that the country they inhabit will not to their utmost industry yield more than a bare subsistence. Mercantile exertion also is restrained within very narrow bounds; ghee and till being the only articles Okacan export, and six or seven boats are more than sufficient for the whole quantity. The concourse of pilgrims who resort annually to Dwaraca are supplied with the necessaries of life from Mandavie in Cutch; but the revenue derived from the holy places has also been decreasing, as well as the number of pilgrims. The families of the Maharatta chiefs, who formerly contributed to the support of the temples, have latterly either wanted the means, or directed their charitable donations to other places.

These habits of depredation and rapine had also been aggravated and confirmed by their unceasing feuds and internal dissentions. On account of their piratical character, the natives of Okamundel had long been interdicted fair commercial communication with the adjacent provinces; and the property acquired by plunder was squandered with the thoughtless profusion of a banditti. From the period of 1809, however, the conduct of the different chiefs had shewn such evident symptoms of improvement, and the fidelity with which they fulfilled their obligations had been such, that the Bombay government in 1812 determined to admit them as traders to British ports, and to afford them other reasonable indulgences, with the view of habituating them to industry, and in the hope of at last converting them to useful members of society. The inveteracy of their old habits, however, was found insurmountable, and also the utter inutility of the engagements entered into for the suppression of piracy: for not only were the depredations by sea renewed on British property; but a predatory system into the adjacent territories commenced by land. The conquest of Okamundel, therefore, appeared the only effectual remedy for evils of such inveteracy and duration.

In prosecution of this object, a detachment under Colonel East crossed the Runn in 1816, and advanced west towards Okamundel, whence he addressed letters to the chiefs of Dwaraca and Dhenjee. From the first he received an evasive answer, for the purpose of gaining time to execute a project he contemplated, and of which Colonel East had received authentic information, of poisoning the water in the neighbourhood of the two places above mentioned. The attempt was actually made; for when the detachment took up a position within three miles of Dhenjee near a large tank, it was found filled with branches of the milk bush, which were however cleared out, before they had time sufficient to communicate their poisonous quality to the water. Dhenjee was captured with inconsiderable loss; and, notwithstanding the treachery meditated by the Dwaraca chief, in consideration of the sanctity of the place, Colonel East determined to attempt a negotiation, which was finally successful, being followed by the surrender of Dwaraca without further resistance by the garrison composed of Sindeans, who were replaced by 300 British sepoys, selected on account of their caste. The detachment then advanced towards the isle of Bate, which quietly surrendered on the promise, (which had been equally held out to the other chieftains,) of a suitable provision, and complete security for their private property and religious establishments. The agents of Sunderjee Sewjee were then placed in the temporary charge of the police and of the revenue collections.

The poverty of Bate and Okamundel generally would have rendered them unprofitable acquisitions to the British government; but the sanctity of the territory rendered it grateful to the Guicowar, who was willing to accept it at the

hazard of a pecuniary sacrifice. In 1816, the highest revenue of Okamundel was estimated at 40,000 rupees, three-fourths of which was realized from the tax on pilgrims, which, under the British system, would have undergone a reduction; as had happened at Juggernauth. Out of the above sum also, the native chieftains must have been provided for, although their revenues were so scanty, and penury so great, that they had never been able to fulfil the pecuniary engagements entered into with Colonel Walker, the great source of their profits having been destroyed by the abolition of piracy. After much negotiation and hesitation on the part of Futteh Singh Guicowar, Okamundel, with its holy places of Bate and Dwaraca, was finally transferred to the Baroda government in 1817.—*(Macmurdo, Carnac, Public MS. Documents, East, &c. &c. &c.)*

BATE ISLE.—An island situated at the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 22° 27′ N. long. 69° 19′ E. Bate signifies an island of any kind, the proper name of this one being Shunkodwar. There is a good harbour here, well secured from the prevailing winds, but the anchorage is rocky. The port of Bate has lately been much improved, but is still an insignificant place, being merely a square with a double wall on one side. It was notwithstanding attacked by a British force without success in 1803, which was attributed to the want of regular land forces. On this occasion many brave men lost their lives. In 1809, about 150 vessels of different sizes belonged to the port, which were employed principally to and from Mandawie, and until the interference of the Bombay presidency, were the piratical vessels so much dreaded by traders on the western coast of India.

The island does not produce sufficient food for its own support, and consequently imports large quantities of ghee, sugar, grain, &c. which are consumed by the numerous pilgrims resorting to the holy places. The town of Bate contains about 2000 houses, chiefly inhabited by Brahmins; but all sorts of trades are also to be found. Vegetables, raised in small quantities, and milk, compose a considerable portion of the food of the inhabitants; the fish, with which their shores abound, being held sacred. The Bate government has also Amramra, Positra, Bhurwalla, fortified places, and the little village of Rajpoor, subject to it. The whole revenue arising from the temples, the port duties, and the share of pirated property, probably never amounted to two lacks of rupees per annum.

In 1807, a fine of 110,000 rupees was imposed on this island, as a punishment for piracies committed by its inhabitants, and subsequently an agreement was executed by Coer Babjee of Bate, and Rana Suggermanjee of Amramra, by the conditions of which they engaged not to permit, instigate, or connive at any act of piracy, committed by any person under their authority, and also to abstain

from plundering vessels in distress. A free and open commerce to be permitted to all British vessels paying the regulated duties. The British by this treaty undertook to afford the temple at Bate suitable protection and encouragement.

Shunkodwar is the proper name of the island of Bate, and is derived from that of a Hindoo demon, so named from his dwelling in a large shunk, or conch shell, wherein he concealed the sacred Vedas, which he had stolen from Brahma. An incarnation of Vishnu, under the name of Shunk Narayan, cut open the shells, and restored the Vedas to their lawful owner. The demon pleaded as his excuse that he hoped to have been put to death by Vishnu for the theft, which would have insured him future happiness. In consequence of this exploit, Shunk Narayan (Vishnu), or the destroyer of the shell demon, established his own worship on the island, where it continued paramount until the flight of another Hindoo deity, named Runchor, from Dwaraca, to escape the fury of a Mahommedan army, since which time Runchor has been supreme on Bate. In 1462, this place was taken by Sultan Mahmood Begra, of Ahmedabad and Gujerat.—*(Macmurdo, Treaties, &c.)*

DWARACA. *(Dwarica, the gate).*—A town and celebrated temple (named also Juggeth) situated at the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 22° 15′ N. long. 60° 7′ E. In 1809, this place was possessed by Mooloo Manick, then considered the most powerful of the Okamundel chieftains. The sacredness of the place attracts a rich and numerous population, and presents a safe asylum from danger. There are 21 villages belonging to Dwaraca, containing 2500 houses, which, at the rate of four persons to each house, would give a population of 10,240 souls subject to it. By an agreement executed on the 14th of December, 1807, Mooloo Manick Sumyanee, of Dwaraca, engaged with the British government not to permit, instigate, or connive at any act of piracy committed by any person under his authority, and also to abstain from plundering vessels in distress. On their part the British government engaged to afford the temple at Dwaraca every suitable protection and encouragement; a free and open commerce to be permitted to vessels paying the regulated duties.

The most original and sacred spot in this quarter of India is Dwaraca; but about 600 years ago, the valued image of their god Runchor (an incarnation of Krishna) by a manœuvre of the Brahmins was conveyed to Daccoor in Gujerat, where it still remains. After much trouble the Brahmins at Dwaraca substituted another in its stead, which unfortunately also took a flight across a narrow arm of the sea, to the island of Bate or Shunkodwar, about 135 years ago, on which event another new one was placed in the temple here. Dwaraca is also designated by the name of the island; and having long been the residence of Krishna, the favourite Hindoo deity, is a celebrated place of pilgrimage for the sectaries

of that religion. In performing this pilgrimage the following ceremonies take place:

On the arrival of the pilgrim at Dwaraca he bathes in a sacred stream, named the Goomty, from its windings, for permission to do which he pays the Dwaraca chief four rupees and a quarter; but Brahmins pay only three and a half. After this purification a visit is made to the temple, where offerings are presented according to the circumstances of the devotee, and a certain number of Brahmins are fed. The pilgrim next proceeds to Aramra, where he receives the stamp from the hand of a Brahmin, which is made with an iron instrument on which are engraved the shell, the ring, and the lotos flower, which are the insignia of the gods. The instrument is made hot and impressed on any part of the body, but generally on the arms, and, by not being overheated, generally leaves an impression on the spot. It is frequently impressed on young infants, and a pilgrim may receive not only his own stamp, but also stamps on his body for the benefit of any absent friend. This stamp costs one rupee and a half.

The pilgrim next embarks for the isle of Bate, where, on his arrival, he must pay a tax of five rupees to the chief, present liberal offerings to the god, and dress him in rich clothes and ornaments. The chief of Bate, who is a holy person, receives charge of the present, which he retails again to other pilgrims at a reasonable rate, who again offer it to the deity, and it performs in time a similar revolution. The average number of pilgrims resorting annually to Dwaraca has been estimated to exceed 15,000, and the revenue derived to the temples about a lack of rupees.

Notwithstanding this existing place of pilgrimage, the most authentic Hindoo annals assert, that Dwaraca was swallowed up by the sea a few days after the decease of Krishna. This incarnation of the preserving power (Vishnu) spent much of his time at Dwaraca, both before and after his expulsion by Jarasandha from Mathura, on the banks of the Jumna, in the province of Delhi, which would indicate a greater intercourse between these distant places than could have been expected at so remote a period. The chalk with which the Brahmins mark their foreheads comes from this place, where it is said to have been deposited by Krishna, and from hence by merchants is carried all over India. Thirty miles to the southward of Poorbunder is the supposed spot where the original Dwaraca stood, until swallowed up by the ocean. There it is that a bird annually rises from the foam of the ocean, and by its colour enables the Brahmins to predict the nature of the coming monsoon. The idea of this apparition, which is mentioned in the Ayeen Acberry, is still prevalent; and, according to the Hindoos, this bird of omen continues annually to peck grain, dance before the deity, and die, as it did 2000 years ago.—*(Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

MUDDEE.—A small village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the banks of the Runn, about ten miles S. E. from Juggeth or Dwaraca. This strange morass (the Runn), viewed from hence at a distance, appears covered with water, but when approached the deception is discovered to proceed from a thick coat of salt as white as snow. The land thieves of Oka are here named Kaba, a Sanscrit word which signifies a seeker or searcher, on account of the severe scrutiny all pilgrims and unprotected travellers undergo. The rags of the Byraggie (a Hindoo mendicant) are carefully examined, and the ball of ashes, with which he besmears his body, is broken by these robbers in hopes of finding some small coin concealed in it.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

DHENJEE.—This place belongs nominally to Dwaraca, but owing to its situation amidst impregnable jungle, the Manick, or chief, has long acted independent of that sacred fane. A treaty was concluded with him by Colonel Walker, in 1807, with a view to the suppression of piracy; but he and his subjects persevering in their evil ways, the place was captured by Colonel East in 1816, and afterwards transferred to the Guicowar.

PINDTARUK *(or Pintara)*.—A small village in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on a sandy plain, extending about two miles from the western shore, 20 miles from the north-western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 22° 19′ N. long. 69° 24′ E. In the vicinity there is a spring of pink-coloured water, celebrated among the natives as a place of pilgrimage, the Hindoos considering it to have been the spring where the Pandoos procured their pardon for the crime of cow killing, after they were expelled from Hastinapoor.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

BHATTIA.—A town situated near the western extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 22° 9′ N. long. 69° 26′ E.

POSITRA.—A piratical town and fortress of Okamundel, in the Gujerat peninsula, lat. 22° 20′ N. long. 69° 21′ E. 18 miles N. E. from Juggeth point. The gopee chundun, a white clay for marking the forehead, taken from a holy tank near Positra, sells at Bombay for six rupees per maund.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

BURUDDA *(or Jaitwar)*.—A district extending along the south-western coast of the Gujerat peninsula, and situated principally between the 21st and 22d degrees of north latitude. The country which is still known by the name of Burudda, and which composes the present territory of the Rana of Poorbunder, is bounded on the north by the Sorteeannee river, which falls into the Meannee by Hallaur. On the east it has the Burudda mountains and the Minsar; on the south and west the sea. In the Sanscrit language, Burudda signifies the backbone; and the name originated in consequence of Paeidman, one of Krishna's sons, placing a mountain on the back of Kalcat, a demon, who had

the presumption to interrupt the great sacrifice of the horse which the Pandoos were performing.

The chief towns at present are Poorbunder, Navvee Bunder, and Meannee; and there still exist the ruins of a town named Ghoomtey, the debris of which continue to attract the devotion and excite the curiosity of the Hindoos. According to their traditions, it stood a siege of seven or eight years, but the exact era has never been ascertained. By the conditions of Colonel Walker's arrangement in 1807, the chieftains of Poorbunder, or Buruda, were bound to pay the Guicowar an annual tribute of 30,000 rupees; which is quite as much as the district could afford. The surface is generally flat, the soil light earth with rock, and not remarkably fertile. The want of wood, so common throughout the Gujerat peninsula, is equally felt here; and the water is in many places brackish.—(*Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.*)

POORBUNDER.—A large and populous town, built on a creek of the sea, on the south-west coast of the Gujerat peninsula, 58 miles S. E. from Juggeth point. Lat. 21° 39′ N. long. 69° 45′ E. This petty maritime state is centrally situated, about half way between Diu and the north-west extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. It contains 80 inhabited villages, two fortresses, Chayia and Kundurna; also eleven gurries, or places with four towers. The number of families is 15,000; and the total population about 75,000. The number of ploughs 3000. The surrounding country has a level appearance, with the exception of one range of mountains, about 12 or 14 miles distant from the town.

Poorbunder is an emporium for Gujerat and Malwah, with Persia and Arabia. To Muscat the exports are cotton, thread, wheat, oil, and bajeree; the imports from thence, madder, raisins, and sumna. To Bombay the exports are cotton and grain; the imports, sugar, iron, steel, tin, lead, cloths, china-ware, broadcloths, pepper, spices, rice, &c. in small quantities. The easy access to the Poorbunder territory and towns, and the facility of shipping cotton, give it a preference over any other town on this coast, and its situation to the westward of Bombay enables vessels to leave it at a later period, and effect their passage at the opening of the monsoon, while the passage to Bombay from the ports situated more to the eastward, is at the latter end of May rendered dangerous and precarious, owing to the wind's hanging so much to the southward. From its geographical position also, a military force stationed at Poorbunder is enabled to controul a line of sea coast from Bate to Diu; but its fortifications were much injured by the great earthquake of the 16th of June, 1819.

The modern port of Poorbunder was established on the site of the ancient city of Suddamapura, mentioned in the Bhagvat Geeta as having been sud-

denly converted from a small village into a city of gold by the deity Krishna, in order to gratify his old friend and companion, Sudama. Within the territories of this petty principality, the Mhers and Robaries form an original and singular institution of a standing or national militia, who are the organs of the public opinion and support of the state. The Robaries are cowherds; the Mhers pretend to be a class of Rajpoots, but by the Hindoos they are scarcely considered as within the pale of the Brahminical religion. It is supposed they can muster from 3000 to 4000 men. The reigning family are of the Jaitwar tribe, and claim a descent from Hunimaun, the gigantic monkey, and prime minister to the great Rama; and although not Jahrejahs, so fascinating does the practice of evil appear to be, that it could be established by evidence, that no grown up daughters had appeared in the family for more than 100 years. They are still distinguished by the name of tailed Ranas, from a supposed elongation of the spinal bone.

On a high mountain in this district, visible from Bhattia, once stood the city of Goomty, which was the metropolis of the Ranas of Poorbunder, when their sway extended throughout the western quarters of the Gujerat peninsula. It was destroyed by Jam Bhamenee, the son of Jam Oner, who invaded the country from Sinde, for the purpose of overturning the government of Poorbunder. Legendary tales and songs state their passage of the Runn at Mallia, which may be esteemed evidence of the extent of that curious swamp at an early period. By the terms of an agreement concluded in 1808, Rana Sertanjee, and Coer Hallajee, of Poorbunder, engaged with the Bombay presidency, not to permit, instigate, or connive at, any act of piracy committed by any person under their authority, and also to abstain from plundering vessels in distress. Reciprocal freedom of trade to be permitted by both parties, and an agent from the Bombay government to be allowed to reside at Poorbunder.

In 1809, this petty state was placed under the immediate protection of the British government, to which one half of the port duties, estimated at 37,500 rupees per annum, with a participation in all its rights and advantages, were assigned, as a compensation for 50,000 rupees advanced to the Guicowar, on account of the debt due by the chiefs and town of Poorbunder. Prior to this event, the Ranas of Poorbunder were subjected to insults and exactions from all quarters. Besides those extorted by the Maharattas, they paid 7300 corees (three to the rupee) to the Nabob of Junaghur; 2000 to the Bahi chief of Bautwa; 5800 to the Cusbatty of Mangrole; and 1400 corees to the Portugueze of Diu; which last was in consideration of protection for their trading vessels, which not having been for many years afforded by the Portugueze, or required by the Poorbunder state, had virtually ceased. On this occasion, the

management of affairs at Poorbunder was entrusted to Sunderjee Sewjee, a respectable merchant: and by the arrangements made with the creditors of Poorbunder, the British government was not involved in any obligation beyond that of seeing that the resources of the country were applied to the several purposes specified; which interference was the only chance left of saving this small principality from complete insolvency.—(*Walker, Maxfield, Macmurdo, Pottinger, Schuyler, &c. &c. &c.*)

MEANNEE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 40 miles S. E. from Juggeth Point. Lat. 21° 50′ N. long. 69° 35′ E.

SORETH.—A district in the Gujerat peninsula, encompassing the Junaghur mountains, and situated between the 21st and 22d degrees of north latitude. To the north and west it is bounded by Hallaur and Burudda; on the south by Babreeawar; and on the east by Cattywar. When Abul Fazel wrote, it appears to have comprehended a great proportion of the Gujerat peninsula, prior to the irruption of the Catties. By that author it is described as follows: "Circar Soret, containing 73 mahals, out of which 13 are on account of port duties; revenue 63,437,366 dams." It is, probably, the most fertile, and, from being tolerably well wooded, has a more pleasing appearance than most parts of the peninsula.

The country of Soreth, including Junaghur, its capital, was anciently governed by Rajas of the Churassama tribe, during which dynasty they are described as enjoying a high degree of prosperity, while the neighbouring territories were harassed by contending Mahommedan chiefs. In process of time, it also fell a prey to the followers of the prophet, who gradually reduced it to the state of barbarism and desolation which it now exhibits. The ancient residence of the Soreth Rajas was at Runtella, but was afterwards transferred to Junaghur, which in 1472 surrendered to Sultan Mahmood Begra, when Raja Row Mundybak was ordered to repeat the Mahommedan creed. During the siege, few guns were used on either side; the garrison principally defending themselves with bows and arrows. From this period, Soreth remained subject to Mahommedan princes, and when Gujerat was conquered by Acber, became a dependance of the great Delhi empire, under the immediate superintendence of the Soubahdar of Ahmedabad.

About 1735, when the Mogul empire had fallen to pieces, it again became independent, having been seized on with Junaghur, the metropolis, by Shere Khan Babi, a soldier of fortune, whose descendant still fills the throne. But his, or any other authority, was very imperfectly established; every fortress, town, hill, or village, being occupied by petty chiefs and communities, averse to every species of regularity and subordination. Towards the conclusion of the 18th

century, many of these dens of thieves were reduced by the energy of Ammajee, dewan to the Nabob of Junaghur, who was afterwards assassinated by his master, Hamed Khan, the reigning Nabob, in 1808.. Indeed, for the last 30 years, this principality has exhibited an unceasing scene of revolutions, assassinations, and intrigues, in perseverance and activity incredible to a mere European politician.—*(Walker, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

JUNAGHUR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, district of Soreth, of which it is the capital, 60 miles N. N. W. from Diu Point. Lat. 21° 29′ N. long. 70° 38′ E. This is a petty Mahommedan state of some celebrity in the Gujerat peninsula, the chiefs of which are sprung from the same tribe as the Nabobs of Rahdunpoor. In 1808, Hamed Khan Babi was fined 40,000 rupees by Colonel Walker, on account of piracies committed by his subjects and connived at by himself. He died in 1811, on which event his eldest son, Bahadar Khan, possessed himself of the government; but disorders arising, the chief power and controul devolved on some Arab jemadars, who had found it their interest to unite their influence and maintain a good understanding, by the efficacy of which they were enabled to impose severe restraints on the Nabob, who implored the assistance of the British government, offering as a return to relinquish in perpetuity, his mooluck geery collections in the Gujerat peninsula, amounting to about 170,000 rupees per annum. The leading Arab Jemadar, named Omar Mookhasur, was in consequence required to surrender his authorities and those of his partisans, under an assurance that their just claims on the principality would be liquidated, and that he himself would be allowed to reside within the Junaghur territories, while every other Arab mercenary would be compelled to retire from the peninsula. These objects were subsequently attained without the necessity of resorting to force, although there appeared in the first instance every manifestation of a determined opposition on the part of the Arabs. In 1811, the total amount of the Junaghur revenues of every description was estimated at . . . . . 632,000 rupees.

Deduct amount embezzled		236,000
		396,000
Paid to the Guicowar	75,000	
Government expenses	230,000	
Junaghur jummabundy	175,000.	480,000
Deficient		84,000

The above statement exhibits an instance of the regular confusion of the revenue arrangements of native states, and more especially of the Maharattas. In this instance, the Guicowar levies 175,000 rupees, on his own and the Peshwa's

domains, for the benefit of the Junaghur government; while the last levies 103,000 rupees (of which only 75,000 are paid) on account of the Guicowar.

The custom of the country has sanctioned the collection of mooluck geery, (tribute received to abstain from plundering), although acknowledged to be a usurpation; but the right in the Soreth government is considered attached to the possession of Ahmedabad, and of course was vested in the Peshwa, whose rights were transferred to the British government by the treaty of Bassein. The collection of the Junaghur ghauss-dana claims, in the British districts, having been consolidated with those of the other revenue payments, it does not appear that any benefit would be derived from its relinquishment; for the assessments made in consequence on the cultivators by the heads of the villages, would not be at all reduced by its removal, and the benefit would be experienced by a few leading individuals, who have no claim to any such gratuity. *(Carnac, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

DHORAJEE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 14 miles N. from Junaghur. Lat. 24° 41′ N. long. 70° 48 E.

JAITPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 20 miles N. E. from Junaghur. Lat. 20° 42′ N. long. 70° 49′ E. In 1808, the perpetual tribute to the Guicowar, payable by the Catty chiefs of Jaitpoor, was fixed at 38,000 rupees.

BAUNTWAH.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 27 miles west from Junaghur. Lat. 21° 29′ N. long. 70° 13′ E.

DRAUPPA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 40 miles N. N. W. from Junaghur. Lat. 21° 57′ N. long. 70° 17′ E.

BABREEAWAR.—This district comprises that portion of the Gujerat peninsula terminated by the island of Diu. To the north it is bounded by Cattywar; on the south by the sea; to the west it has Soreth; and on the east the sea and the gulf of Cambay. Babreeawar is a very mountainous tract, comprehending few towns, and producing food barely sufficient for its own consumption. Until lately this tract has been almost unknown, partly owing to physical difficulties, and partly to the reputation of its natives for barbarity of manners. The timber produced here is large but useless. The sea-port of Jafferabad is properly in Babreeawar; and the Siddees, who in the course of several generations have multiplied in the neighbourhood, have formed several villages, where they live by industry, and collect for sale a great quantity of excellent honey. The Babreeawar mountains afford also a never-failing pasture, where during the drought of 1812-13, almost the whole cattle of the peninsula were assembled. The jungles are well stocked with tigers, and different varieties of deer. This tract is named after the Babreea tribe of Coolies, which formerly possessed great part of Cattywar and Goelwar, whence they were expelled by the Catties.

In 1808, the Nabob of Junaghur, having succeeded in subduing some of these turbulent villages, enacted a pecuniary acknowledgement from them, but the Babreea zemindars, generally, are not sufficiently wealthy or industrious to present any temptation to the neighbouring chieftains.—*(Macmurdo, &c.)*

BILLAWUL.—A town on the sea-coast of the Gujerat peninsula, 29 miles N. W. from Diu. Lat. 20° 53′ N. long. 70° 34′ E.

PUTTAN SOMNAUTH *(Patana Somanatha)*.—A town near the southern extremity of the Gujerat peninsula, 29 miles N. W. from Diu Head. Lat. 20° 53′ N. long. 70° 35′ E. In 1808 it belonged to the Mahommedan Nabob of Junaghur, Hamed Khan. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "This is a large town on the sea shore, with a stone fort in a plain. The city is a place of great religious resort." When that author composed his work, the surrounding country was named Soreth, although at present more generally known by that of Cattywar, and is celebrated in the sacred books of the Hindoos as containing five inestimable blessings: 1. the river Goomty; 2. beautiful women; 3. good horses; 4. Somnauth; 5. Dwaraca. The modern town stands at the junction of three rivers, the Hurna, the Kapula, and the Sereswati.

Somnauth is one of the twelve images of Siva, which are said to have descended from heaven to earth, and the great fame of its temple attracted the cupidity, while it stimulated the bigotry of Sultan Mahmood, of Ghizni. According to Mahommedan authors the holy image was destroyed; but this fact is denied by the Hindoos, who assert that the god retired into the ocean. The temple, although on this occasion despoiled of its enormous treasures, soon recovered both fame and wealth sufficient to make it an object of attack to many Mahommedan princes. Sultan Mahmood Begra, who obtained possession of the Gujerat throne, and its capital Ahmedabad, in 877 of the Hijera, marched against Somnauth, razed the temple to the ground, and built a mosque on the spot where it had stood. Since that period the territory of Soreth has remained under a Mahommedan government; but the persevering piety of the Hindoos has overcome the religious phrenzy of their rulers. The mosque has gone to ruin, and Ahsela Bhye, the widow of a prince of the Holcar family, has erected a temple on the exact site of that which was demolished. A symbol of Siva has been placed in this temple, which is deemed peculiarly propitious to those who desire offspring, and Somnauth, although it has lost its splendour, retains its reputation, and is visited by pilgrims from every quarter, who pay a trifling duty to the Mahommedan Nabob, for permission to perform their devotions at this favourite shrine.

Not only the spot on which the temple of Somnauth stands, but also its vicinity, is celebrated in the tales of Hindoo mythology. On the adjacent plains

the renowned conflict of the Jadoos was fought, five thousand years ago, wherein 60 millions of combatants were engaged, and all slain except about a dozen. One mile from Somnauth, at a place called Bhalka, the Hindoo pilgrim is shown a solitary peepul tree, on the banks of the river Sereswati, which he is assured stands on the exact spot, where the deity Krishna received the mortal wound from an arrow that terminated his incarnation. In 1816, through the interposition of the Bombay presidency with the Junaghur state, arrangements were effected, tending to secure a greater freedom of pilgrimage to Somnauth. It had long been an object of lively interest with the Guicowar state, and anxiously desired by all classes of Hindoos, to relieve this sacred and celebrated place from the insults of the Mahommedans, who not only preposterously obstructed their worship, but entered the recesses of their temples without the smallest respect for their prejudices.—*(Malcolm, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

Diu *(Dwipa, the island)*.—A small island and harbour near the southern extremity of the Gujerat peninsula. Lat. 20° 41′ N. long. 71° 7′ E. This small island, about four miles long by one broad, in ancient times contained a Hindoo temple, celebrated for its sanctity and riches. In A. D. 1515, the Portugueze obtained possession of Diu, and in 1536, by permission of Bahadur Shah, the Sultan of Gujerat, strongly fortified it. While the Portugueze power prospered, it enjoyed considerable commerce, but it fell with their decay, and in 1670 was surprised and plundered by the Muscat Arabs, then a considerable maritime power, who obtained great plunder. It has since dwindled away, and is now an insignificant place, containing only about 4000 inhabitants; but it may at some future period become again of importance, on account of its harbour and geographical situation. Even now it receives a small tribute annually from Poorbunder, for the protection it is supposed to afford to the trading ships of that port, but which it neither does nor can afford. The remains of convents and monasteries are still to be seen, and cannon are mounted on the walls, but there are no soldiers to look after them. In 1809, during a particular emergency, it was garrisoned by a detachment of the 47th Regiment.—*(Stewart, Bruce, Duncan, &c. &c.)*

Kowreenaur.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 10 miles N. N. W. from Diu. Lat. 20° 45′ N. long. 70° 50′ E.

Oona.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 18 miles N. E. from Diu head. Lat. 20° 50′ N. long. 71° 10′ E.

Jafferabad *(Jafarabad)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, formerly of considerable commerce, but now of little note, situated on the banks of a shallow river, 38 miles N. E. from Diu. Lat. 20° 52′ N. long. 71° 29′ E.

RAJOORA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 53 miles N. E. from Diu head. Lat. 21° 2′ N. long. 71° 40′ E.

GOELWAR *(or Gohilwar)*.—The division of Goelwar is bounded on the north by the river Bhadur, and the Company's district of Arratum; on the east by the gulf of Cambay; on the south by the sea; and on the west by Cattywar and the coast of Walak. It is watered and fertilized by many rivers, and contains the valuable sea-ports of Bhownuggur and Gogo. The name is derived from the Goel tribe of Rajpoots, the present possessors of the country, who, according to tradition, derive their name from Salivahan, third Raja of the Caliyug, who defeated Vicramaditya 1739 years ago. By the conditions of Colonel Walker's arrangement in 1807, the chieftains of Goelwara were bound to pay to the Guicowar state a perpetual tribute of 111,700 rupees, which the district can afford, as it is fertile and produces almost every kind of grain, much of which is exported. There is also an ambawun, or mangoe forest, extending for about a couple of miles, and remarkable as being the only thing of the kind in the Gujerat peninsula. The face of Goelwara, although generally flat, has several conspicuous mountains, among which may be mentioned those of Oollitana and Seroi.—*(Walker, Macmurdo, &c. &c.)*

WALAK.—A subdivision of the Gujerat peninsula, which having passed from the Catties to the Coolies, who in their turn were extirpated by the Raja of Bhownuggur, this territory has been classed in conjunction with Goelwar.

LOLYANA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 30 miles west from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 56′ N. long. 71° 54′ E.

TULLAJA.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, eight miles from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 24′ N. long. 72° 11′ E.

BHOWNUGGUR.—A sea-port town, situated on the west side of the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 48′ N. long. 72° 16′ E. It was named after the grandfather of the present Rawul, who founded it on the site of a village named Joona Wurwa. The plan was marked out, and the foundation laid, by Bhow Singh, 1742, who was succeeded by his son Rawul Akarajee, who joined the British expeditions against Tallaja and Mowa. He was succeeded by his son Wuckut Singh. These princes (the Rawuls of Bhownuggur) had the good sense to encourage commerce, to protect the merchant's property, and to extirpate the little piratical communities, which possessed the south-western coast of the gulf of Cambay. The town in consequence waxed rich, and is at present the chief mart for the export and import trade of Cattywar, Ahmedabad, and Marwar. Being thus protected by the Rajas, many opulent merchants settled at Bhownuggur; and the neighbouring port of Gogo, although possessed of a better

harbour continued of secondary importance. One very curious and not very creditable manufacture has long been established here, which is a mint for the fabrication of base money, where every sort of rupee, current on the west side of India, is so well counterfeited, that even native bankers have been deceived by them. In 1812, the Raja was not only strongly suspected of conniving at the practice, but also of sharing in the profits. From 1810 to 1814, 38 Arabian vessels, aggregating 2716 tons, arrived at this port, and 37 aggregating 2683 tons returned. These vessels do not usually resort to any other ports under the Bombay presidency, besides Surat and Bhownuggur.

In 1807, with the voluntary concurrence of the Raja, the tribute he used to pay to the Guicowar state was transferred to the British government, amounting to 74,500 rupees; but this change did not authorize any interference with the internal concerns of the genuine Bhownuggur territory, in which the Raja retained every privilege undiminished. The names of the estates which formerly settled with the Guicowar are, 1. Omrala and the villages of Lolyana; 2. Mowa and Barwar; 3. Wagnuggur; 4. Delvore, &c.; 5. Tullaja, &c.; 6. Janjmere; 7. Jelalpoor, Mandwa, &c. &c. In A. D. 1809, it was discovered that the Bhownuggur chieftain, although tributary to the British, and actually under its protection, connived at the depredations of the turbulent Catties, whose plunder found a ready market in his territories. As a punishment, Colonel Walker, during his march through the Gujerat peninsula, imposed a fine on him of 25,000 rupees. In extenuation of his apparent partiality, the Bhownuggur Raja pleaded the uncivilized condition of his territory, and the evil example held out by the barbarous tribes on his frontiers, which aggravated the difficulty he experienced of controuling his own subjects. On this occasion the Bhownuggur chieftain had been induced to give a Bhatt security as guarantee for his decennial engagements to the Guicowar, but the moment that tribute was transferred to the British government, he requested to be relieved from the security of a Bhatt, which he had given merely in deference to the custom of the country, and who exacted a pecuniary recompense as the price of his security. The Thakoor's wishes were immediately complied with, the original engagements cancelled, and others entered into under his own personal guarantee.

Matters continued in this state until 1810, when it was determined by the Bombay presidency, after much consideration, to establish the British authority throughout the whole of the cessions made under the treaty of Bassein, to the west of the gulf of Cambay; and an occasion soon arose of acting practically on the resolution. In February, 1813, during a severe famine, seven natives of the pergunnah of Gogo, in which Bhownuggur is situated, quitted their homes

to seek for a subsistence; it is supposed on their way to Bombay. While passing through Bhownuggur, the pangs of hunger so far vanquished their religious prejudices, that they had recourse to the expedient of killing and eating a cow. This excited much horror in the mind of the Thakoor, or chieftain of Bhownuggur, who thought proper, although within the British territories, to seize, torture, and finally decapitate five full grown persons, and five lads about 15 years of age. As neither humanity nor policy could permit so arbitrary and cruel an act of tyranny to pass unnoticed, the chief of Bhownuggur was called on, to state the grounds upon which he considered himself warranted in exercising such summary process within the limits of the British sovereignty.

This Thakoor, or lord, in reply asserted, that these sinners and ill fated persons were not destitute; that they had twice killed four or five cows; and that all the inhabitants exclaimed against such infamous proceedings. That although properly cautioned, these wretches, prompted by their contumacious and disobedient appetites, had presumed to slay five cows on that very night, in consequence of which they had been punished according to the rules of the Hindoo religion.

On investigating this chief's claims to independent authority, it appeared on record, that the pergunnah of Gogo, although comprized within the district of Goelwara, a subdivision of Cattywar, had been for ages dismembered from it, and formed a distinct dependency on Ahmedabad, the capital of Gujerat, the viceroy of which province controuled Gogo through the medium of a foujdar, or commandant; nor did it appear that a divided authority had ever existed in Gogo, while the latter was subject to a Mahommedan government. On the declension of the latter in 1742, Bhow Singh, like other ambitious men, strove to aggrandize himself, and, by intrigues and purchase, acquired the village of Bhownuggur, where he constructed a fortress. Some time afterwards Momen Khan, the Nabob of Cambay, attacked Bhownuggur, which compelled Bhow Singh to cede to the Siddee of Jafferabad (the admiral of the Mogul's fleet) a fourth of the customs of his port, for protection against the ambition of the Cambay prince, which fourth share devolved to the British government on acquiring the castle of Surat and the command of the Mogul fleet, in 1758. On the conquest of Gujerat by the Maharattas, the chief of Bhownuggur conciliated the rising power, acknowledged the supremacy of the Peshwa, and received as a reward for his services a fourth of the customs of Gogo. The sovereignty over these possessions, thus acquired by the Peshwa, were ceded to the British nation, without any reservation of sovereignty in favour of the Bhownuggur chief, by the treaty of Bassein.

Under these impressions the Raja of Bhownuggur was apprized of the distinct

relations in which he stood connected with the British government as a tributary prince, and as a landholder. In the first mentioned character, he is fully entitled to exercise the authority of a sovereign within the territory from which the tribute accrues; but in the second, as proprietor of Bhownuggur and its dependent villages, situated within the pergunnah of Gogo, he must be considered as a mere landholder, amenable in common with the meanest subject to the courts established for the administration of justice. He was consequently warned against the future perpetration of any act of contumacy or cruelty, as he would thereby incur the indignation of his feudal superior, the British government.

In 1816, the Thakoor of Bhownuggur's military establishment consisted of the following troops, viz. 350 Arabs, and 550 Sindeans and Hindostanies; total 900 infantry, and 1090 horsemen; but although paid for, probably one half, especially of the latter, were non-effective. The expense incurred amounted to 226,620 rupees per annum, independent of various assignments of land to relations and others for military service. Within the last ten years, however, the Thakoor, considering himself secured by the British protection from external aggression, as well as effectually debarred from encroaching on his neighbours, took advantage of the tranquil condition of the province, and studied to improve his possessions and finances by the gradual reduction of his unnecessary establishments, especially of the military. Of those rated as Arabs, probably not more than one-half are really from Arabia; the remainder are natives of the country, who, from long association with the Arabs, have acquired their language, and assumed their dress and arms, or are the descendants of Arabs born in the country. Notwithstanding all these precautions, the Thakoor is greatly in debt, and being amenable to the established courts of justice, much inconvenience would result both to him and to the British government were his creditors to resort to that channel for the recovery of their really just claims. His principal towns, Seehore and Bhownuggur, are situated in the pergunnah of Gogo, and are both fortified. The first was the residence of the Thakoor's ancestors, and even now many of his female relations reside there; the last is the abode of the Thakoor himself, with his son, and their establishments. The Bhownuggur territories suffered greatly by the famine of 1812, and its port has latterly been on the decline, owing to the superior advantages presented by Gogo.—*(Public MS. Documents, Captain Archibald Robertson, Carnac, Walker, Bourchier, &c. &c. &c.)*

SEEHORE.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 22 miles W. from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 44′ N. long. 72° 3′ E.

GOGO *(Goga)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, situated on the west side of

the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 21° 40′ N. long. 72° 23′ E. This is a safe roadsted during the S. W. monsoon, to which vessels may run in case of parting with their anchors in Surat roads, it being an entire bed of mud, about three-fourths of a mile from the shore, and always smooth water. Ships may here get supplied with stores and provisions, and repair any damages they may have sustained. The natives, who are principally Mahommedans, build vessels from 50 to 300 tons, and formerly carried on a brisk trade with Bombay in their own craft, but latterly much of this commerce has been transferred to the adjacent port of Bhownuggur. The Lascars of Gogo are named Siddees, and are reckoned the best on the west coast of India. In 1582, it was described by Abul Fazel as follows: "Ghogeh is a large port, well built, and inhabited by merchants. Ships come to and others are fitted out from this place. The cargoes of ships are put in small vessels, which transport them to Cambayet. In this neighbourhood are remarkably fine oxen, some of which are sold for 300 rupees a pair and upwards, according to their beauty and speed."—*(Elmore, Abul Fazel, Malet, Drummond, &c.)*

RATTOLAW.—A sea-port in the Gujerat province, situated on the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 22° 3′ N. long. 72° 15′ E. By the arrangements of the British government with the Guicowar in 1802, the British acquired this harbour, which is on the windward side of the gulf of Cambay, and well calculated, from its situation and easy access, to attract the commerce of the Gujerat peninsula and of the neighbouring country.

ARRATUM.—This is a British district under the collectorship of Kaira, extending along the north-east corner of the gulf of Cambay, and bounded on the south by Goelwar and the Bhownuggur territories, which it in every respect resembles. It is intersected by various small rivers of a short course, and the chief towns are Dundooka and Ranpoor.

DUNDOOKA.—This town stands about 50 miles S. W. from Cambay, in lat. 22° 25′ N. long. 72° 6′ E. The territory contiguous to Dundooka, and also that of Ranpoor, suffered greatly in 1813; first in the almost total absence of rain, and secondly in the destruction by locusts of what little produce had survived the drought.

DOLLERAH.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, pergunnah of Dandooka, 10 miles west from the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 22° 18′ N. long. 72° 21′ E.

CHOWAL.—A district in the north-eastern quarter of Gujerat, situated between the 23d and 24th degrees of north latitude. The chief towns are Massaunna, Beejapoor, and Maunsa, and the Roopeyne the principal river. The description which follows of the British pergunnah of Beejapoor in 1810, may be considered applicable to the whole of this large division, at that period; since which

the portions possessed by the Guicowar, and other native chiefs, cannot be said to have experienced any essential improvement.

MAUNSA.—A town in the Maharatta territories, 29 miles N. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 26′ N. long. 72° 43′ E.

BEEJAPOOR.—A town and pergunnah in the Chowal division of the Gujerat province, until recently belonging to the Bombay presidency, and subordinate to the collectorship of Kaira, but entirely insulated and surrounded by the dominions of the Guicowar. The town stands in lat. 23° 37′ N. long. 72° 46′ E. about 40 miles N. from Ahmedabad.

Although this territory had been for several years transferred to the British government, in 1810, a great proportion of the villages paid no obedience to the British functionaries, either native or European, denied their right of interference, permitted no process to be served within their respective limits, and paid no revenue except when influenced by the presence of a military force. The turbulent and rapacious habits of the natives, who had in a great measure rejected even their superstitious prejudices, rendered the restoration of tranquillity extremely difficult, as the chiefs, and even the heads of villages, had exercised a sovereign power, deciding on the lives and properties of the vassals, the subjects of the British government. This anarchy also pervaded the neighbouring districts subject to the Guicowar, in all of which, Kurree excepted, neither the Rajpoots, Coolies, nor any of the sacred and religious tribes, contributed in the slightest degree to the support of that government, which maintained peace in the interior and protected the territory from foreign invasion; yet these very persons engrossed the most fertile portions of the lands. The Rajpoots and Coolies paid nothing even to their chiefs, who supported themselves by arbitrary imposts on the cultivators and merchants, and by sharing in the plunder of their predatory dependants. The laborious and industrious inhabitants were assessed by these freebooters beyond all supporting, the rate fluctuating from 20 to 40 rupees per plough, besides incidental extortions. In addition to this disproportionate allotment of the burdens of government, they carried their individual excesses to an extent that rendered it wholly impossible, without military coercion, to preserve the public peace.

Having wholly shaken off their superstitions, these marauders very frequently compelled the Bharot who had become their security, by their contumacy in resisting engagements, to sacrifice his life, thereby redeeming his character, and freeing himself from further responsibility. In 1810, the presence of one of their chiefs being required by the collector, his adherents discharged matchlocks over the head of the Bharot, his security, who being a man of respectability in his caste, immediately put himself to death. The chief fled beyond the Com-

pany's territories, and afterwards endeavoured by liberal offers to effect the murder of a Brahmin, belonging to the village, who refused to be the associate of his crimes. In 1810, the self-sacrifices and mutilations of the Bharots still continued, notwithstanding the injunctions of the Bombay presidency to the contrary. This extraordinary race of people (the Bharots) appear convinced, that the duration of their influence depends on their punctuality and fortitude in undergoing the extreme appeal, and nothing restrains the desperate Coolie, but his dread of the Bharots having recourse to this ultimatum.

The neighbouring districts of Ederwara and Ahmednuggur were then in a still more unsettled state; indeed to a European mind it appears remarkable how such a frame of government can subsist for 12 months. From the village of Ashroria a banditti issued at pleasure, and robbed indiscriminately every person they could master, carrying the more select to their village, where, by the application of torture, they endeavoured to extort a ransom from his friends. These excursions were neither rare or concealed, nor was any doubt entertained as to the actual perpetrators, yet such is the nature of native governments, that no attempt was made to extirpate them, and they were allowed to exercise their profession with impunity. In 1811, after considering all circumstances, the Beejapoor pergunnah was let in farm to Deo Row Casi, for five years, at an annual rent of 171,647 rupees. This measure was disapproved of by the court of directors, who, however, sanctioned it, as it could not be recalled. It has been observed that in districts similarly situated with Bejapoor, the best effects have resulted from the appointment of an European officer to reside on the spot, and to exercise in his own person the double function of collector and magistrate. The Bombay presidency long endeavoured to effect an exchange with the Guicowar of this remote and insulated pergunnah, for one more contiguous, although of less annual value, which was, after much negociation, at length effected in 1817, when Bejapoor and its dependencies, valued at a rental of 171,647 rupees, were exchanged for the pergunnah of Kuppurwunje, Balij in Neriad, sundry villages in the vicinity of Kaira, and the division of Currode, situated south of the Tuptee, near to Surat.—*(Rowles, Carnac, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

KURREE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 25 miles N. N. W. from the city of Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 17′ N. long. 72° 26′ E. In January, 1802, when Major Walker was within a day's march of Ahmedabad, Mulhar Row Guicowar, against whom he was advancing, offered to surrender the territory which he had taken from the legitimate Guicowar Anund Row, and engaged to meet Governor Duncan, at Cambay, to adjust all differences. Major Walker, however, having reason to doubt the sincerity of these overtures, advanced upon Kurree,

his principal fortress, where a conference was held with Mulhar Row, in which he acquiesced in every demand that was proposed. He was, nevertheless, all the while watching an opportunity for treachery; and, accordingly, while the British troops lay encamped, within three miles of his capital, he suddenly opened a cannonade upon them, by which several valuable officers and 40 privates lost their lives, although he was ultimately repulsed. Reinforcements, under Sir W. Clarke, having joined the detachment, Major Walker summoned Mulhar Row to surrender, which he disregarding, his army was attacked and driven from their entrenchments, with the loss of 163 killed and wounded on the part of the assailants. He now thought proper to surrender, stipulating only for the safety of his person, and the fort was soon after evacuated by the enemy's force, consisting of 3000 horse and 8000 foot.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

MAULPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 56 miles N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 21′ N. long. 73° 31′ E.

PAUNDERWARRA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 84 miles E. N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 73° 44′ E.

EDERWARA.—A large subdivision of the Gujerat province, situated on the northern frontier, and bounded in that quarter by the province of Ajmeer, or Rajpootana. The chief towns are Eder, Ahmednuggur and Maulpoor, and the territory is comprehended in the Guicowar's share of Gujerat; but owing to the turbulent and predatory habits of the natives, and of their neighbours, he derives but a scanty and precarious revenue from so great an extent of fertile territory, his authority being but imperfectly established, and all parties thinking themselves allowed to rob when a suitable and convenient opportunity offers. The principal streams are the Sabermati, the Hatmati, the Mheyshwa, and the Wautruck.—The town of Eder stands in lat. 23° 53′ N. long. 73° 2′ E. 64 miles N. by E. from Ahmedabad. Its chief assumes the title of Thakoor, or Lord. In 1810 his family was torn with dissensions, and his country ravaged by predatory horse.

AHMEDNUGGUR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, 48 miles N. N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 38′ N. long. 72° 2′ E.

BURNUGGUR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 58 miles north from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 52′ N. long. 72° 39′ E.

KHEYRALOO.—A town in the Gujerat province, 70 miles N. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 58′ N. long. 72° 35′ E.

WAUGUR.—This large district occupies the north-eastern corner of the Gujerat province, being bounded on the north by Ajmeer, and on the east by Malwah. The principal towns are Doongerpoor, Banswara, and Gullicote, and the Mahy

the chief river. The feudal superior is the Guicowar, but little is known respecting the interior of this remote quarter of his territories.

BANSWARA.—The capital of a small native state in the Gujerat province, mentioned by Abul Fazel, formerly subject to Odeypoor, and possessed by a branch of that family, but which has been for many years separated, and in 1818, was included as an independent principality, in the British federal arrangements. Lat. 23° 38 N. long. 74° 35′ E. 72 miles south from Chitore.

CHILKAUREE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 102 miles E. N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 25 N. long. 74° 13′ E.

DOONGURPOOR.—The capital of a small principality in the Gujerat province, 95 miles N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 54′ N. long. 73° 50′ E. Both this state and Banswara have remained so long disunited from Odeypoor, that they are virtually separate sovereignties, although still kept attached by family descent and alliance. In 1817, arrangements for protection were extended to the chiefs of Doongurpoor and Banswara, which appeared calculated to preserve tranquillity in the market towns, situated on the bordering tracts of Gujerat, Malwah, and Rajpootana, and for so long a time a prey to every species of rapine and disorder.—*(Tod, &c. &c.)*

CHUMPANEER *(Chapanir)*. — A large subdivision of the Gujerat province, situated between the 22d and 24th degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the east by the province of Malwah. It has two very large boundary rivers, the Nerbudda and Mahy, and is besides traversed by many smaller streams. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows:—"Circar Chumpaneer, containing nine mahals, measurement 800,337 begahs; revenue 10,109,884 dams. This circar furnishes 550 cavalry and 1600 infantry." Until recently the Peshwa, Sindia, and the Guicowar had portions of this territory; and there were, besides, many petty native chiefs, such as the Rajas of Soonth, Lunawara, and other places, who either wholly, or partially, rejected all feudal superiors.

CHUMPANEER *(or Powanghur)*.—The ancient capital of the district, situated 60 miles N. E. from Broach. Lat. 22° 31′ N. long. 73° 41′ E. Chumpaneer, or Pavanghudd, is a large mountain, or rather rock, rising out of the bosom of Gujerat, one of the most level provinces of Hindostan. It stands about 22 miles N. E. from Baroda, in a straight line, and except a few hillocks, in comparison, it stands alone, frowning over the south-eastern part of the district. The height, by a rough estimate, may be about 2500 feet above the level of the plain; and on some sides appears nearly perpendicular. It is visible ten or twelve miles south of Baroda, and also from the minaret of the Jumma Musjeed (mosque) at Ahmedabad, at least 70 miles distant. At the base to the

northward are the remains of an ancient city, the ruins of which extend several miles on each side of the mountain, but are at present covered with an impenetrable jungle, which, although now the abode of tigers and a few Bheels, abounds with the ruins of houses, temples, mosques, and beautiful tanks. Most of these remains appear to be of Hindoo origin; but in one direction, towards Hallole, formerly a suburb, but now four miles distant, the vestiges are mostly Mahommedan tanks, domes, and mosques. A small space of an oblong figure is enclosed by a stone wall of good workmanship, flanked with towers at intervals, and built by Sultan Mahmood Gujerattee, about half of which is at present inhabited by a tribe of silk-weavers, who manufacture khimkaubs, to the colour of which the Chumpaneer water is said to give great durability. The length within the walls is about three-fourths of a mile; and the breadth, by conjecture, about three furlongs, with a thick jungle, in most places up to the walls. The mountain above is sufficiently strengthened, having two forts, the upper deemed impregnable by the natives, and containing a Hindoo temple of great antiquity, dedicated to the goddess Cali; the defences of the lower fort are extensive, and the whole of difficult approach.

Chumpaneer is supposed to have been the capital of a Hindoo principality, long before the Mahommedan invasion, and was taken in the year of the Hijera, 889, by Mahmood the Seventh, king of Western Gujerat, after a siege, or rather blockade (the natives say) of 12 years. It remained attached to the Mahommedan kingdom of Gujerat, until captured by the Mogul Emperor, Hoomayun, A. D. 1534. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as a place of considerable strength, and even then surrounded by extensive Hindoo and Mahommedan ruins. On the decline of the Mogul empire, Chumpaneer fell into the hands of the Maharattas, who always considered it a place of importance, and kept it strongly garrisoned. In 1803, the Powanghur territory consisted of five divisions, four of which belonged to Sindia, whose deputy usually resided at Godra. Notwithstanding its formidable position, it was taken from Sindia in 1803 by a small detachment of the Bombay army under Colonel Woodington, but was restored to him again in 1804. In 1812, the town of Chumpaneer, or Powanghur, contained 400 houses, of which not more than half were inhabited, principally by emigrants from other parts of Gujerat. The Bheels, who appear to be the aborigines of this part of the province, speak remarkably pure Gujerattee, having but little intermixture with strangers. In the estimation of the natives, the dignity of this fortress is very great, and so strongly impressed are the adjacent petty states of Lunawara and Soonth, of having been from all antiquity, appendages to that towering castle, containing their tutelary deity, that

they never consider themselves wholly independent of the authority that possesses the venerable hill.—*(Miles, 5th Register, &c.)*

MULLAOW.—A town in the Gujerat province, 60 miles E. by N. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 38′ N. long. 73° 42′ E.

NARROHOTE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 37 miles E. from Baroda. Lat. 22° 21′ N. long. 73° 59′ E.

HALLOLE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 52 miles E. N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 32′ N. long. 73° 22′ E.

DUBBOI *(Dhubai)*.—A large town in the province of Gujerat, which in 1780, although then in a state of rapid decay, was supposed still to contain 40,000 inhabitants, among whom were only 300 families of Mahommedans. Lat. 22° 9′ N. long. 73° 25′ E. 38 miles N. E. from Broach. The remains of fortications, gates, and temples, at this place indicate a former state of great magnificence; and the profusion of hewn stone, and the remains of sculpture scattered about, are astonishing. The ancient walls and towers were entirely built of large square stones, the expense of bringing which from the distant mountains must have been enormous, as not the smallest pebble is to be found in this part of Gujerat. The gate of Diamonds presents a very favourable specimen of Hindoo architecture, extending in length 320 feet, with a proportionate height. Rows of elephants, richly caparisoned, support the massy fabric, and the whole is covered with sculptured groups of various descriptions. Within the walls is a large tank constructed of masonry, having a grand flight of steps to the water. The whole is now in a state of dilapidation. During the height of the rains, the city is nearly insulated by the overflow of the waters.

In 1780, the Dubboi district contained 84 villages, and yielded a revenue of four lacks of rupees. The produce consists of many of the smaller grains, with some cotton and oil seeds, wheat being little cultivated. The manufactures are principally coarse cotton cloths, sent from hence to be dyed at Surat, for the Arabian market: no very fine cotton fabrics being made here. Besides these, ghee is the chief commodity. This town was at an early period conquered by the Mahommedans, and remained in their possession until the decline of the Mogul power, when it was seized on by the Maharattas. Some of the principal houses are well built, but the rest, native huts; the whole, however, overshadowed by mangoe and tamarind trees, where dwell nearly as many monkies as there are human creatures below. The natives consider them half men, and say, that on account of their laziness, tails were given to them, and also hair to cover their bodies. This town was captured by the British during their earlier Maharatta wars, but evacuated at the peace of 1783.—*(Forbes, &c. &c.)*

JHALLODE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 55 miles N. by E. from Chumpaneer. Lat. 23° 3′ N. long. 74° 14′ E.

LUNAWARA *(Lavanavara, a salt region).*—A town and petty state, in the province of Gujerat, 63 miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 8′ N. long. 73° 43′ E. Until the march of the field brigade under Lieutenant Colonel Holmes, in 1803, through the central parts of the Gujerat province, our knowledge of these remote quarters was so inaccurate, that this plain and fertile district were almost lost sight of, and its consequence not duly appreciated. The subsequent movements of the army under Colonel Murray furnished more correct information of its position and relative importance.

The Lunawara territory composes part of the open country of Gujerat, partly situated on the right bank of the Mahy, and adjacent to some most important passes. To the south it is bounded by the Babi of Ballasinore's domains; northwest by Morassi; to the northward by Doongurpoor, including the Gulliacote districts; eastward by Soonth; and southward by Godra. It forms part of the five districts of Powaghur, from which, however, it is separated by a jungly range of hills, extending nearly to the Mahy river, the defiles through which are difficult and infested by the Bheel tribes. The length of this principality may be estimated at 35 miles from north to south, and about half that extent in breadth. This small tract is one of the most beautiful in the Gujerat province, and exhibits a great variety of picturesque scenery, being intersected by the Mahy river, and containing many expanded sheets of water, formed generally by embankments and applied to the purposes of irrigation. These advantages, together with its remote situation from the usual route of the Maharatta armies, and its vicinity to many strong passes, rendered it one of the most tranquil and opulent cities in this much agitated province.

The town and fortifications of Lunawara are nearly three miles in circumference. The latter ascend the craggy side of a lofty range of hills, the summit of which is also fortified, which inspires the natives, who always connect elevation and security, with a great opinion of its strength. It is favourably situated for merchants proceeding from Rutlamghur, and other parts of Malwah, to Ahmedabad and the interior of Gujerat. The artizans here are particularly skilful. Arms, armour, military accoutrements, excellent smiths and carpenters abound; and, in 1803, supplied the army under Colonel Murray so effectually, that combined with its defensible condition and advanced position, would have induced him to establish here the magazines and hospital, if the fortress of Dohud had not at the time been amicably acquired. On account of its geographical position and intersection by different chains of hills, it is of difficult access to predatory parties.

In 1803, while Lunawara formed a depot for the British army in its operations against Sindia, a treaty of protection was concluded with the existing government of that principality, exonerating it from the tribute paid to Sindia, but which afterwards, in 1806, was dissolved by the Bengal government under pretexts far from satisfactory, and the country abandoned to all the rapacity of that depredator. Lunawara was then considered as independent of Sindia, although a tributary, being a Moolukgeery, not a Khalseh district, an important distinction in Hindostan. On this occasion, doubts having arisen whether or not it was situated in Gujerat, the point was decided in the affirmative by Colonel Walker, after he had examined the records of the province deposited at Ahmedabad, the ancient capital.

Prior to 1803, the reigning Rana of Lunawara was assassinated by his own ministry, and contentions arose, during which a body of Sindia's troops were called in, and various murders committed, the result of which was that the late Rana's widow and Nana Mehtah, her minister, in conjunction with Ghullah Bharot, her paramour, misgoverned this little community at the date of Colonel Murray's approach in 1803. The widow dying in 1804, both ministers endeavoured to gain the support of British patronage, but without success. The reigning Raja in 1806 was under 20 years of age, of a delicate feminine appearance, puerile in his manners, already enervated in body and without energy of mind, existing a mere pageant in the hands of his ministers. Neither was he a descendant of the late Rana's, but merely a Rajpoot child, adopted by the Rana's widow. The legitimate prince was then supposed to be alive and residing at Doongurpoor.—*(Burr, Treaties, &c.)*

KUDDAUNA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 80 miles E. by N. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 19′ N. long. 73° 53′ E.

SEYRAH.—A town in the Gujerat province, 65 miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 73° 42′ E.

SOONTH.—Until 1803, when Colonel Holmes's brigade explored the central portions of Gujerat, this town was unknown even by name. It stands in lat. 23° 13′ N. long. 73° 55′ E. 80 miles E. by N. from Ahmedabad. Soonth is contiguous to the Lunawara subdivision, and on the east extends into the open country, nearly as far as the Calibeer tank, in the vicinity of the Gudara district. It formerly reached west to Lunawara, and included the Jhallode, but it has since been curtailed of its most valuable possessions, and Lunawara still disputes the possession of the frontier towards Calibeer, which keeps it uninhabited, although very fertile. It is sometimes called South Rampoor, from a village of the latter name adjoining.

The fort and town of Soonth stand three or four miles from the open country

to the westward, from which it is separated by a continuance of jungly hills of moderate elevation. The fort of Soonth is built on the western face of a high rocky hill, which it crowns, while the lower walls commence near the base, where there are some tolerably well built small houses, forming a village. The fort is also well built, and contains a curiously constructed palace, which with the fort are capable of being rendered quite sufficiently strong to resist native armies. It is only, however, of consequence as commanding an important pass, for it is otherwise a poor and miserable place, although the Raja views his hills with infinite satisfaction, and deems his fort impregnable. Like other Rajpoot leaders, the reigning chief in 1806 was greatly addicted to opium, and although only 28 years of age, exemplified the baneful effects of that drug in a premature decay of body and mind. He objected, however, most strenuously to Soonth's becoming a thoroughfare, either for commerce or armies, foreseeing a speedy dissolution of his government as a consequence, and preferring ignorance, opium, and independence, to the doubtful advantages of a more civilized state.

The country of Soonth is strong, difficult to penetrate, extremely troublesome to subdue, expensive to retain, and wholly unproductive as to revenue. The low lands yield rice, but scarcely any other grain; the hilly parts afford pasture to the numerous cattle of the rice carriers, but during the hot season are so parched and destitute of water, that they are for many years deserted even by the savage and intractable Bheels, who are the sole and temporary inhabitants of these dreary wastes, and scarcely under any controul, even of the persons who are accounted their chiefs. Doubts having arisen in 1803, whether or not Soonth was within the limits of Gujerat, the point was decided in the affirmative by Colonel Walker, after reference to certain documents of the province compiled from the records at Ahmedabad by an ancient Dewan of the province.—*(Burr, &c. &c.)*

BARREAH.—This town stands in a valley, near the river Pannah, in a narrow spot just sufficient to comprehend the town between the river and the foot of the hill. It is neat, and contains many houses, built of brick and tiled. Lat. 22° 44′ N. long. 74° E. 80 miles E. N. E. from Cambay. The extensive wilds of Barreah comprise almost the whole space from Godra to Dohud, a distance of almost 40 miles, of which scarcely a single spot is cultivated. One much-frequented road, named, by way of eminence, the King's Path, traverses this jungly region, and a ramification of it branches off near Barreah, leading to Hallole; but it is extremely difficult for cannon, and impracticable for large corps. Although the Barreah jungle is, in most places, tolerably open and passable for troops lightly equipped, it would be almost impervious for baggage,

and heavy guns, if the Raja and his predatory Bheels, at all times sufficiently disposed to rapine, chose to resist its march. On the other hand, if the Raja favoured an invasion, from the east, the province of Gujerat might be entered suddenly, and ravaged by an army of horse, bringing the first intelligence of its own advance.

The Barreah principality may be described as one among the few independent petty states, now existing in Hindostan, being not only exempted from the payment of any established tribute, but having a chout on all the neighbouring districts, of which it is very tenacious. These chouts, with certain moderate duties on trade, compose nearly the whole of the Raja's scanty revenues.—*(Burr, &c.)*

GODRA *(or Gudara)*.—A town in the Gujerat peninsula, 67 miles N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 48′ N. long. 73° 44′ E.

RAUJPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 87 miles N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 57′ N. long. 74° 4′ E.

DOHUD *(or Dwahad)*.—This town is situated within a circle of hills, where the province of Gujerat ends and that of Malwah commences, 49 miles N. N. E. from Chumpaneer. Lat. 23° 6′ N. long. 74° 26′ E. It is surrounded by a high wall, enclosing a citadel of an oblong square form. The houses are built of brick; and here are found a considerable number of the Borah tribe of Mahommedans. In 1803, a British hospital and depôt of stores were established here. *(Forbes, &c.)*

TAUNDAH.—A town in the Gujerat province, 120 miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 55′ N. long. 74° 29′ E.

BAHADURPOOR.—This town is fortified with a gurry and bad wall, and is situated on the banks of the Oze river, about seven miles from Dubboi. Lat. 22° 10′ N. long. 73° 45′ E.

CHEROOTTER.—A district in the province of Gujerat, extending along the west side of the river Mahy, and for the most part tributary to the Guicowar. The principal towns are Cambay, Pitlaud, Ballasinore and Beerpoor; and the chief rivers the Mahy and Seyree. A portion of this geographical subdivision is comprehended in the British district of Kairah, where further particulars will be found.

ATTERSOOMBA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 24 miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 4′ N. long. 73° 3′ E.

CAMBAY *(Cambaja)*.—An ancient city in the province of Gujerat, situated at the upper part of the gulf of Cambay. Lat. 22° 21′ N. long. 72° 48′ E. Near the town, the tides of the gulf run with great rapidity, and rise and fall 40 feet; so that, at high water, ships can anchor near the town; but at low water the

river runs almost dry, so that vessels in the harbour must lie aground in the mud. When Ahmedabad flourished, as the capital of an opulent and independent state, Cambay was its sea-port, and experienced great commercial prosperity; but it decayed with its metropolis, and is now much reduced. In 1780, it was only three miles in circumference, surrounded by a brick wall, perforated for musquetry, and flanked with 52 irregular towers, much out of repair and mounted with almost useless artillery. The interior exhibited a collection of uninhabited streets, ruined mosques, and mouldering palaces; among which ruins a great quantity of wrought stone and sculpture is found, the expense of transporting which must have been immense, the mountains containing the quarries being very distant. The largest edifice, then existing, was the Nabob's palace, making a poor appearance externally, and in the inside subdivided into many small rooms and porticos, surrounding open squares, and embellished with fountains and gardens in the Mogul taste. Besides this, there was a handsome mosque, named the Jumma Musjeed, a curious Hindoo temple; and, in the suburbs, many Mahommedan tombs and cemeteries.

At this town, and others in Gujerat, are Hindoo subterranean temples, which have been constructed since the Mahommedan invasion, and still remain. In the houses of opulent persons are also found underground apartments, where they conceal their females and property during times of danger. In a Jain subterranean temple, at Cambay, are two massy statues of their deities, one of which is white and the other black. The inscription, on the first, intimates that it is an image of Parswanatha, a Jain deity, carved and consecrated in the reign of the Emperor Acber, A. D. 1602. The black one has merely the date inscribed, with the names of the two Banyans who brought it there.

The surrounding country is pleasant, and, when well cultivated, very productive of wheat and Hindostany grains; besides which, many fields are sown with carrots and other vegetables; extensive fields of cotton, and also of plants from which oil is expressed, are also seen; but the whole managed in a most indolent and slovenly manner. It is said that in the city and adjacent country, there were formerly 50,000 wells and tanks; but that, many years ago, to prevent the Maharatta armies from encamping in the vicinity, most of the tanks were drained, and many of the wells filled up. Cambay was formerly celebrated for fabrics of silk, chintz, and gold stuffs; but all these manufactures have decayed. Indigo was always a staple here; but the quantity exported is now insignificant, and the quality greatly inferior to the Bengal article. Elephants' teeth and cornelians are procured here for the China market; but the chief articles of export are cotton and grain, to Bombay: the imports are the same as of the Gujerat province, generally. The plaisterers, of this town, are reckoned

particularly expert. In the north-west quarter of India, it is supposed that the saline particles in the water, even where remote from the ocean, give that appearance of dampness and coarseness to the walls for which they are remarkable, when compared with those of Coromandel. The Persian language is here spoken in great purity, on account of the number of emigrants from that country who settled here during the civil wars of Persia, and also many of Nadir Shah's soldiers who deserted and retired with their plunder to Cambay.

Major Wilford is of opinion that in the 5th century Tamara Nogara, or Cambat (Cambay), was the capital of the Balarayas, and perhaps of the Hindoo emperors of the west, when the two dignities happened to be united in the same person. Osorio, a Portugueze writer, says, that when Francis d'Almeida landed near Cambay, in the year 1515, he saw the ruins of sumptuous buildings and temples, the remains of an ancient city. It is said such ruins still exist to the south of Cambay, on the Broach side, where there are temples and other buildings half buried in sand, with which this place was overwhelmed. Cambay was taken and pillaged by the Mahommedans, in A. D. 1297, during the reign of Alla ud Deen. In 1780, it was governed by a native prince, named Mohmaunkhan, whose father had been Nabob of Ahmedabad when it was conquered by the Maharattas, on which event he fled to Cambay, and there fixed his sovereignty; but his remaining territory was small, ill cultivated, and subjected to so heavy a tribute, by the Maharattas, that his annual revenue did not exceed two lacks of rupees. His military establishment then consisted of 2000 Sindean and Arabian infantry and 500 cavalry.

In 1813, during some political discussions, the Nabob of Cambay protested against certain measures, which he asserted were encroachments on the inviolability and independence of his sovereignty; in consequence of which, inquiries were made to ascertain the justice of his claims to complete independence. During these researches, an authentic document came to light which established the fact, that 42 years ago the Peshwa exercised a divided jurisdiction both civil and criminal; but whether or not this right had been subsequently conceded to the Nabob remains undecided. Travelling distance from Bombay 281; from Delhi 663; from Calcutta 1253 miles.—*(Forbes, Drummond, Wilford, Public MS. Documents, Elmore, Mallet, Rennell, &c. &c. &c.)*

CAMBAY *(Gulf of)*.—A gulf on the north-west coast of India, which penetrates about 150 miles into the province of Gujerat. The tides, in this arm of the sea, run with amazing velocity, and at low water leave the bottom of the gulf dry from lat. 22° 3′ N. to Cambay town. No vessels attempt to go above Gongway, in one tide, from Jumbosier, it being often attended with bad consequences; for if they cannot get into Cambay creek, they must return to Gongway, which is

distant five leagues. In many places the current is so rapid, that if a ship takes the ground she immediately upsets, and, in all probability, the whole crew perish. It is supposed that the depth of water in the Cambay gulf has progressively been decreasing for more than two centuries. Fifteen miles east of Cambay city, the bed of the gulf is reduced to six miles broad, and is dry at ebb-tide; but the passage ought never to be attempted, either on horse or foot, without a native guide, as there is danger of wandering among the mud and quicksands, and being overtaken by the flood tide, which rushes furiously in like the bore in the Calcutta river.—*(Elmore, Drummond, &c.)*

PETLAD.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, 15 miles N. by E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 32′ N. long. 72° 57′ E. Half of the pergunnah was comprehended in the British territories, and the establishment of a court of justice here, was at one time under the contemplation of the Bombay presidency; the other half then belonged to the Peshwa. In 1818, the British half was ceded to the Guicowar in exchange for his share of Omrut. The caste of Dhers are here exempted from the general duty imposed on them all over Gujerat, of serving as guides to strangers. Formerly, at this place, a traveller might seize on the first person he met, and compel him either to act as guide or find a substitute.

NAPPAH.—A town in the province of Gujerat, 30 miles N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 32′ N. long. 73° 9′ E.

BALLASINORE.—A town and petty state in the province of Gujerat, the chief of which, named the Babi of Ballasinore, was tributary to the Peshwa. It is situated near the Seyree river, about 41 miles E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 59′ N. long. 73° 25′ E.

KAIRA.—A large district in the Gujerat province; the territories belonging to which are so extended, straggling, and intermixed with others belonging to native powers, that it is almost impossible to point them out. It consists principally of lands ceded at different periods by the Guicowar and Peshwa, especially the first, and formed into a separate jurisdiction under the Bombay presidency, having its head-quarters in the city of Kaira. The mass of natives in this region have always been considered an untractable race, and it has required the greatest perseverance and abilities, of some of the most eminent of the Bombay civil and military servants, to reduce them to any species of subordination; but, in spite of their inveterate habits, they are gradually yielding to the mild and conciliatory authority now exercised over them. The northern portions, however, continue much exposed to the irruptions of plundering parties of horsemen from the neighbouring territories belonging to the native chiefs, who still find that the villagers sympathize with them in their predatory habits.

The system of revenue collection, reported by Colonel Thomas Munro, generally prevails in Kaira, with one distinction, which is, that instead of fixing the rental of a village, and then portioning out the parts to be contributed by each cultivator; in Kaira, the rental is first determined, and the gross amount of the individual rents, whatever it may prove to be, constitutes the total rent of the village. This system is so consonant with what is already established in the province, that to give it effect has more the appearance of regulating what has always existed, than the introduction of any innovation. In this district, also, the revenues are fully and punctually realized; and the sale of landed property, for the purpose of making good the demands of the state, is a measure scarcely known in any of the territories subject to the Bombay presidency.

The revenue of the tracts composing the Kaira collectorship, when ceded in 1805-6, amounted to 1,300,155 rupees. In 1814, the gross revenues were as follows:—

Land	1,414,762 rupees.
Sayer or variable imposts	178,435
Net customs	45,121
Sundries	46
Total	1,638,365

And the succeeding year, 1815-16, the gross revenues amounted to 1,821,868 rupees, making an increase of 521,713 rupees. The increase, on the cessions made by the Peshwa, averaged more than 90 per cent. on the rental at which they were received; while that from the Guicowar portion averaged about 27 per cent. The extreme high price which the produce of the soil realized in 1813-14, on account of the scarcity which had prevailed in Gujerat, tended in that year not only greatly to enrich the cultivating class, but all persons whatever possessing an interest in the lands, which number comprehends four-fifths of the inhabitants.

The number of Bhatts and Bharots in this quarter of Gujerat is great, and their influence considerable, as may be inferred from their being, until very recently, resorted to in all the districts north of the Mahy river, not only for the security of the revenue, but for submission to the law, and personal appearance of the inhabitants when summoned. The means by which these impostors maintain their influence is by operating on the superstitions of the Hindoos, who revere persons that dare to have recourse to traga when they are oppressed or insulted. Traga is an act of violence, sometimes on their own persons, at others, by putting some person to death; but usually by a cut on their own arm, or any other part of their body; the party causing this act, however innocently,

being supposed responsible for its iniquity, and is in general so panic struck, that he acquiesces in whatever is demanded of him. Should he, however, prove obstinate, and resist the imposition, the Bharots assemble in great numbers at his door, and threaten, that unless he complies with their requisition, they will immolate a human being. The object they select for this purpose is commonly an old woman, not of their own tribe, but of that named Tragalla, a race employed about the temples, and of the lowest caste of Hindoos. In prosecuting these attempts at intimidation, one or two of this tribe frequently become victims; but if still unavailing, they proceed, as a dernier resort, to the sacrifice of their own mothers, sisters, daughters, and wives; and what is equally extraordinary, these infatuated creatures with eagerness offer themselves to what they esteem a species of martyrdom. During the imbecile government of the native princes, the efficacy of their controul in Gujerat depended greatly on the support they afforded to the Bharots; of course, no measures were ever contemplated to to weaken an influence so intimately blended with that of the ruling power.

After the cession to the British government, the practice appears to have fallen greatly into disuse, as the trial of a Bhatt in 1808, for the murder of his own daughter, afforded the only example (until 1816) of the sacrifice, known to have occurred within the Kaira jurisdiction, since the establishment of a regular court of justice. On that occasion, the prisoner acknowledged the commission of the act, but pleaded ignorant of its being one for which he could be considered criminal, as he conceived such extremities authorized by the customs of his tribe. In some of the pergunnahs, such as those of Gogo, Ranpoor, Dundooka, and a large portion of Dholka, abounding with the most turbulent classes, and where the introduction of the British sovereignty was long protracted; the Bhatt influence had never been introduced, yet, notwithstanding the deplorable condition of the society when first ceded, the efforts of a regular administration of justice gradually operated a reform in the habits of the Grassias and Coolies, without the extraneous aid of superstitious agency, which, in fact, had gained strength in those territories only, where conflicting Maharatta pretensions paralyzed the operations of the regular police, rather than in places where the vestiges of an established government continued. In fact, the agency of the Bhatts, if at all necessary, seemed solely adapted for the controuling of the wildest Mewassie villages. In 1816, a disturbance attended with bloodshed, broke out in the village of Mahtur, not far from the city of Kaira, caused by the resistance of the Bhatts to the orders of government, regarding the mensuration of their lands. The ferment, however, did not extend, and was viewed by the great mass of the population with feelings decidely adverse to the cause of the agitators, who very generally regretted the

forbearance that was evinced by government on the occasion. They had hoped, that by proceeding to extremities, a sympathy in their behalf would have been excited, which would eventually give them a victory over the laws; whereas, in consequence of the moderate line of conduct pursued, the great body of the inhabitants contented themselves with remaining tranquil spectators. Since the perpetration of this outrage, the security of the Bhatts for the revenue has been wholly dispensed with, nor has the least inconvenience been experienced from the want of their services.

The prevailing offences tried at the Kaira circuit sessions, in 1811 and 1812, were burglaries or house-breakings, and those punished by the magistrate, larcenies and petty thefts; cases of murder were very rare; and, although the fabrication of base money was so common, both in this district and the adjacent countries, as to frustrate all ordinary means of suppression, few or no cases were brought before the judges. Gang robberies are by far the most frequent crime; but the difficulty of seizing the delinquents on the spot, or tracing the leaders to conviction, accounts for its rarely forming a class of crimes in the calendar. But the increasing confidence of merchants and travellers, and the extended cultivation of waste lands, tend to prove the decrease of this species of crime; a fact which the natives admit as unquestionable. As perpetrators of these atrocities, the Coolie tribe stand conspicuous; but even this lawless race appear to be gradually forsaking habits which seemed indelible, and it is probable that the continuance of a firm and steady system of government, by encouraging their confidence, recognizing their just rights, and repressing their evil propensities, will in course of time convert them to industrious cultivators and peaceable subjects.

In 1812, another very general crime was bharuttye, which greatly infested the pergunnah of Dholka, and was committed most frequently by Rajpoot Grassias, who, although they have every thing to lose, frequently disregard their real interests, when set in competition with their notions of false honour, private pique, or fancied oppression; sometimes to shun the payment of just debts, at others to obtain an object, by unwarrantable means, to which they have no equitable claim. With the view of obtaining their ends, these persons desert their houses, and become vagabonds (bharwattye), attacking all indiscriminately; and until coerced by the strong hand of the British government, they ultimately always succeeded in gaining their object. Formerly disputes respecting boundaries were very frequent, and were decided by the contests of several hundreds of armed men, but these have almost disappeared. The traga of the Bharots might also be included in the calendar of crimes; but under the influence of a mild, steady, and not precipitate judicial system, this also is rapidly falling into disuse.

The authority of the law in the western districts ceded by the Peshwa was, in 1812, in its infancy. The Rajpoots of that quarter are a high spirited race, requiring the curb of a strong arm, but they are not perseveringly untractable, when they perceive the necessity or advantage of obedience. Kaira, the seat of the court, however, is too distant for the vigorous maintenance of its authority, unless seconded by a very efficient local jurisdiction. In these ill protected spots, long before sunset, the ploughs are unyoked, and the wells deserted by the peasantry, that they may in time seek refuge within the wall or bound hedge of the village; thus leaving immense tracts of valuable land in a state of nature, which under a more efficient police would, by increased cultivation, amply repay the expenditure incurred. This argument for strong government establishments is founded on an interested motive; but a still stronger may be deduced from the inveterate habits of the people governed. It is probably so many ages since these have learned to make a common cause against the existing government, that it is as yet hopeless to expect any kind of assistance from any part of the society, in tracing or apprehending any criminal of distinction. So contrary does the current run, that it is held scandalous to assist in his seizure; and the securities tendered are of no avail, as the parties forfeit their bond, and suffer its penalties, rather than surrender the delinquent when the government is considered as a party against him,—even their own deadly feuds seem to cease when their lawful superior interferes. . . . . .

In the succeeding year, 1813, on a retrospect of the general police of the district, it appeared that petty offences had either considerably increased, or were more frequently detected than before, and that any addition of more heinous crimes might be ascribed to the prior drought and great famine. The crime of murder had certainly not become more frequent, and gang robbery had greatly decreased, much improvement having taken place in the Coolie tribes. The cessions from the Peshwa on the western side of the gulf of Cambay were then tranquil, and the feuds of the different tribes prevented, as heretofore, from breaking out into open hostilities, while the incursions of the Catties from without had been effectually repressed, and the authority of the Guicowar throughout the Gujerat peninsula established on a firmer basis.—*(Keate, Public MS. Documents, Rowles, J. A. Grant, Robertson, &c. &c. &c.)*

KAIRA.—The capital of the preceding district, and head quarters of the judge and magistrate, situated in lat. 22° 47′ N. long. 72° 48′ E. about 40 miles N. of Cambay. This is probably not a very ancient town, at least we do not find that it made any figure in history, until selected for the seat of a judicial establishment. In 1780 it was described by Mr. Forbes as a large town, belonging to the Guicowar, near the confluence of two small rivers, the Wautruck and the

Seyree, and although such a length of time has elapsed we have no more recent description. It was then fortified in the Hindostany mode, with a brick wall flanked by irregular towers, the buildings of the town being almost concealed by trees, which did not indicate a very crowded population.

In 1814, the convicts at this place, to the number of 57, rose on and assaulted their guard with the view of effecting their escape, in attaining which object they evinced such persevering resolution, that 19 were killed and 12 wounded before the mutiny could be suppressed. The remainder were re-captured unhurt. Many of these were imprisoned, but for short periods of time; and during the drought and famine, the comforts of their situation excited the envy of many starving wretches on the outside of the jail.—*(Forbes, Ironside, &c. &c.)*

MAHTUR.—A town in the Gujerat province, a noted residence of Bhatts and Bharots, four miles S. S. W. from Kaira. Lat. 22° 44′ N. long. 72° 47′ E.

NERIAD.—A town in the district of Kaira, 28 miles N. N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 44′ N. long. 73° E. In the 17th century this was a place of great trade, and in 1780 still contained many inhabitants, mostly employed in cotton manufactures. At that date it was about three miles in circumference, and fortified in the eastern manner, with a slight wall flanked by round towers at irregular distances. In 1803, along with the surrounding lands, it was ceded by the Guicowar in part payment of the subsidiary force; the revenue of both was then valued at 17,000 rupees per annum. In 1815, the whole of the revenues of Neriad, which includes many villages classed as refractory, was recovered, under all the increased perplexities of detailed management, without the intervention of a single Bhatt security.

DHOLKA.—A town and pergunnah in the Kaira district, 20 miles S. by W. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 45′ N. long. 72° 32′ E. Three-fifths of the extensive and valuable pergunnah of Dholka are calculated only for wheat and grain. Of the remaining portion of the soil, one half at least is appropriated to the cultivation of rice, and another to that of the usual light grains. In 1804, the Grassias of this pergunnah, when they came to settle for the revenues, claimed an exemption from controul even for their servants and dependants, but it was then refused, and since that time no cowl or security bond has been thought of. *(Robertson, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

KOTE.—A town in the province of Gujerat, 10 miles from Dholka. Lat. 22° 40′ N. long. 72° 25′ E.

PEITAPOOR.—A town in the province of Gujerat, 19 miles N. from the city of Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 17′ N. long. 72° 45′ E.

BALIJ.—A town in the Kaira district, 33 miles S. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 22° 40′ N. long. 73° 10′ E. This town with the lands attached, although situated

in the centre of the pergunnah of Neriad, and insulated on all sides by British possessions, belonged to the Guicowar until 1817, when it was ceded at a valuation of 40,000 rupees per annum, in exchange for the district of Beejapoor. Before this period, the communication necessary between it and the other Guicowar territories, was a source of much annoyance to the Neriad villages, owing to the free forage and other immunities to which the troops and officers of a native state consider themselves entitled while marching. It afforded also an asylum for the refractory of the Neriad pergunnah, while its Coolie inhabitants often lent their names to their fraternity of that neighbourhood, when their proceedings were such as to require a cloak.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

KUPPURWUNJE.—The town of Kuppurwunje stands on the eastern banks of the Mooer river, about 27 miles due east from the city of Ahmedabad, 36 miles N. by E. from Kaira, and 60 miles N. N. W. from Baroda. Lat. 23° 2′ N. long. 73° 9′ E. The town is surrounded by a wall, and has been estimated to contain 3000 houses, of which the best are occupied by a tribe of Bhozas, who carry on a considerable manufacture of soap and bangles, and which, with dubbers to hold ghee and oil, may be considered the staples of the place. The houses are well built for an Indian town, which is owing to the cheapness of the materials, the bed of the river affording a supply of stones, and the pergunnah abounding with the finest mangoe and moura trees, used by the lower classes for the construction of their dwellings. The population is computed to exceed 10,000 souls. The pergunnah of Kuppurwunje is situated to the north of the Mahy, but the lands belonging to it stretch principally to the south of the town along the banks of the Mooer river, extending from thence near the confines of the Moordah pergunnah to the Wautruk. Among the ravines and jungles of the last mentioned river, are situated the most refractory of the villages, from whence the Coolies used formerly to sally, and plunder their less active neighbours. Kupperwunje also stands in the vicinity of the most powerful and turbulent Mewassie chieftains, such as those of Bhojpoora, Amliara, Phoonadra, Kurral, and Wandwa. It formed one of the tracts given by the Guicowar, in 1817, in exchange for the pergunnah of Beejapoor, when it was valued at 50,000 rupees per annum.—*(Public MS. Documents, &c. &c.)*

AHMEDABAD.—An ancient and celebrated city in the province of Gujerat, of which it is the Mahommedan capital, situated on the banks of the river Sabermatty, which washes its western walls, and with other confluent streams falls into the gulf of Cambay, near the city of that name. Lat. 23° 1′ N. long. 72° 42′ E. From being one of the largest capitals in the east, it had contracted in 1780 to five miles and three quarters in circumference, surrounded by a high wall, with irregular towers every 50 yards, and 12 principal gates, besides many

sally ports. Not far from the city is a fine tank named Kookarea, about a mile in circumference, lined with hewn stones, and having steps leading down to the water. This city was built about the year 1426, by the Sultan Ahmed Shah, on the site of a still more ancient town, and is now much decayed; but tottering minarets, ruinous palaces, mouldering aqueducts and caravanserais still indicate its former grandeur. These ruins appear to occupy a circumference of 30 miles, and the early importance of Ahmedabad may be inferred, from its being one of the four cities, which, during the reign of Acber, possessed a mint. In 1780, the villages round Ahmedabad were large, and built of brick in timber frames. Small scattered hamlets were then, as now, counted unsafe, the peasantry being frequently obliged to unite against the attempts of predatory marauders. Round the walls of Ahmedabad all was desolation, the resort of wild beasts, and noxious reptiles.

In the early part of the 17th century, the Dutch and other European and Asiatic merchants carried on an active traffic to Ahmedabad, where the greatest variety of the rich gold and silver-flowered silks were manufactured, as also silk and cotton goods of every description, and exported from Cambay, which was then the sea-port of this metropolis. The trade in indigo was then great; and here the best workmen in steel, gold, ivory, enamel, and mother of pearl, were to be found. It was also noted for excellent paper and lackered ware; but of all this extensive commerce, few traces are now to be found, if a few kinkobs and some lackered ware ornamented with gold, and palanquins, be excepted. The painters were famous, but have declined with their city. About two miles from Ahmedabad is the Shah Baugh, or royal garden, planted nearly 200 years ago, when Kurreem, the son of the Emperor Shah Jehan, was viceroy of Gujerat. In 1780 it still continued in excellent repair, but is now sadly dilapidated. In Ahmedabad, as in most large cities of Hindostan, there were formerly news writers, who at midnight recorded all the transactions of the preceding day, and dispatched their journals to their different correspondents; but this trade, owing to the great political revolution in India, is fast declining, and is here altogether extinguished. A great proportion of the itinerant musicians, players, and poets, named Bhawee or Rasdaree, so common throughout Gujerat, come from the neighbourhood of this town. In the Gujerattee villages their performances are paid for at the public expense, as are also the bands of wrestlers and jugglers.

About the middle of the 15th century, this city was the capital of a flourishing independent kingdom, particularly during the reign of Sultan Mahmood Begra, A. D. 1450. In the early part of the 18th century, when the Mogul empire fell to decay, the governor of Ahmedabad and Cambay assumed the sovereignty of

this portion of Gujerat, which continued in succession to Mahmaun Khan, during whose reign it was conquered by the Maharattas under Ragunath Rŏw, and the seat of government transferred to Cambay. Ahmedabad continued with the Maharattas until 1779, when it was stormed by a British army under General Goddard, and ceded to Futteh Singh Guicowar, but restored to the Peshwa at the peace of 1783, with reservation of the Guicowar's privileges. In 1803, the latter was influenced to grant a ten years' lease of his share to the Guicowar, which expired in 1813, on which event, the Peshwa refused to accede to a renewal of the farm in favour of the Guicowar, although to prevent the clashing of authorities it was a measure much wished for, and strongly pressed upon him by the British government. It was apprehended by the latter that the prejudical effect of the resumption of the farm, would soon be felt in a country naturally rich and fertile, and just emerging from a state of barbarism and misery to one of comparative civilization, and that it would soon revert to its former condition of anarchy and insubordination.

As the Peshwa, however, continued obstinate, on the 23d of October, 1814, his share of the Ahmedabad farm was transferred to an officer appointed by him, or rather by his favourite Trimbuckjee Dainglia, to whom he had given it, to receive charge, who commenced his functions by affording protection to the plundering Catties, Juts, and Coolies, and acting otherwise in a most unjustifiable manner. On this occasion an inquiry was instituted by the Bombay presidency, with the view of ascertaining the nature of the contradictory claims set up to this unhappy country, by the Peshwa and Guicŏwar respectively. It appeared from the result of the investigation, that the claims of these two potentates on this district are, 1st, on the city; 2dly, on the surrounding country; and 3dly, on the petty states in this quarter of Gujerat. The Peshwa claimed the entire government of the city, but admitted that the Guicowar shared in the collections, and was entitled to place a person in every public office to ascertain the amount of the fees, taxes, and other branches of revenue, and thus prevent the embezzlement of his master's share. The Guicowar's ministers on the other hand, claimed a larger share in the government of the city than is allowed by the above statement, and asserted, that one of the city gates belonged by right to the Guicowar. In the country, the villages of the Guicowar and Peshwa were found to be intermixed, but it did not appear that both participated in the government or collections within the same village, except in the instance of Pitlaud. In respect to the petty states, the tributes of the two princes were distinct, and each of them realized his own demand the best way he could.

Such was the anomalous constitution and Magna Charta of Ahmedabad, while the principles on which the Peshwa delegated his authority were calculated to throw the country into the utmost confusion. The Sirsoobah, or governor, of 1815, was advanced to the uncontrouled government of this fertile territory, in consideration of paying a revenue to the Peshwa which the country was unable to afford, except extorted by the severest oppression. Under these circumstances, the means adopted by him to gratify the avarice of all parties, drove the Coolies within the Ahmedabad district to the necessity of forming combinations to resist extortion, while the distance of the seat of government enabled the soubahdar to practice every species of iniquity with impunity, to which he was besides impelled by the idea, that, either from caprice or a higher offer, his administration would be but of short duration. To save the expense he kept up no regular military establishment, trusting to the soldiers of fortune who are always to be had in Gujerat. From among these he engaged a body of mercenaries, but only for the period of the year when the revenue collections are undertaken; at all other times the territory and its inhabitants were left to shift for themselves. It had in consequence been found quite unavailing by the different British functionaries to call on the Peshwa's officers to remedy evils caused by their own misconduct. If they had the inclination, they frequently wanted the means, and they had always a ready evasion by the subterfuge of referring the matter under dispute to Poona, from whence no satisfactory answer ever returned. In addition to its other misfortunes, Ahmedabad in 1812 was afflicted by a pestilence, which raged with such violence, that half of the whole inhabitants (estimated by the Baroda resident at 200,000) were supposed to have perished.

Travelling distance from Bombay 321 miles; from Poona 389; from Delhi 610; and from Calcutta, by Oujein, 1234 miles.—*(Forbes, Public MS. Documents, Carnac, Rennell, Drummond, &c. &c.)*

UMLYALLA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 30 miles N. N. E. from Ahmedabad. Lat. 23° 14′ N. long. 73° 6′ E.

SAOLEE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 40 miles N. E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 46′ N. long. 73° 22′ E.

OMETA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 26 miles E. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 24′ N. long. 73° 13′ E.

BARODA.—The capital of a Maharatta chieftain know by the family name of Guicowar (Gaikevad) who divides with the British the largest and finest portion of Gujerat, his particular share (in 1818 about 12,000 square miles) lying principally in the northern districts. Lat. 22° 21′ N. long. 73° 23′ E. 43 miles N. by E. from Broach. This place is mentioned by Abul Fazel, and in Aureng-

zebe's reign was a large and wealthy town, and which last appellation it still deserves, as during the wars with Sindia and Holcar (1803-6), the native bankers of Baroda advanced the British armies, at different times, to the amount of one crore and a half of rupees in ready money. In 1780, the fortifications of this place consisted of slight walls, with towers at irregular distances, and several double gates. The town is intersected by two spacious streets, dividing it into four equal parts, and crossing at the market place. The ruins of some handsome Mogul buildings are still to be seen, but the Maharatta structures are mean and contemptible. Near the city is a stone bridge over the river Viswamitra, which is remarkable as being almost the only one in Gujerat, where the streams are generally crossed in ferry boats, or on a light platform floated by empty earthern pots. In the environs are several magnificent wells with steps down to the bottom. The Brodera district is rich, well cultivated, and in many places enclosed and adorned with hedges of tamarind and mangoe trees; the soil is mostly light and of a reddish colour. Provisions of all descriptions are cheap, and game plentiful. In 1818, the total population of the city was estimated at about 100,000 persons.

The rise of the Guicowar's power in Gujerat was almost contemporaneous with that of the Peshwa in the Deccan. Pillajee Guicowar was patel, or managing proprietor of a village, and afterwards an officer under Trimbuck Row, the Maharatta governor of Gujerat, when he was defeated and slain in A. D. 1731. After many struggles and numberless intrigues with various Maharatta families, he established his own power by the same artifices as had been practised by the Peshwa himself, towards the pageant Raja of Sattarah. Dying in 1747, his son Damajee succeeded to his power, but being circumvented and overcome by the Peshwa Balajee Row, he was obliged to cede half his territories, and acknowledge his dependance for the other half. Damajee was at the battle of Paniput in 1761, and escaped alive; but dying in 1768, Futteh Singh, through the influence of the Peshwa, to whom he agreed to pay an enormous sum, succeeded, and by the aid of the British effected the expulsion of his rival. Futteh Singh died in 1789, and was succeeded by his brother Manajee, who died in 1792. To him succeeded Govind Row, who dying in September, 1800, the throne was occupied by his oldest legitimate son Anund Row. This prince being a man of weak intellects, his brother Canojee seized the dewanship, but the rigour of this administration being disliked, he was deposed and imprisoned. Some time afterwards his cause was espoused by Mulhar Row, first cousin to the late Govind Row, and a considerable Jaghiredar, who marched to his assistance with an army of 10,000 men. But the British government determining to

support the legitimate heir Anund Row, a detachment under Major Walker was advanced for the purpose of supporting his authority, which totally defeated Mulhar Row's army, and captured his principal fortress named Kurree.

This state was first noticed in the political transactions of the British nation in the year 1782, at the peace then concluded with the Maharatta chieftains of Poona, when it was stipulated, that the established jaghire of Futteh Singh Guicowar (who had sided with the British) should be guaranteed to him, the said Guicowar performing the same obedience to the Peshwa as had before been customary. By the treaty of Bassein, concluded with the Peshwa on the 31st December, 1802, the British government engaged to arbitrate and adjust all differences between the Peshwa and Guicowar. An alliance was then formed with the Guicowar, who made several cessions of territory, and consented to receive and support a subsidiary force of 2000 regular infantry. With the view of enabling the Raja to fulfil his pecuniary engagements, it was deemed necessary to effect a considerable reduction of the Arab troops, who had always manifested a disposition to mutiny; but these mercenaries being in possession of the town and person of Anund Row, their dispersion threatened to be of difficult attainment, although quite essential to the complete establishment of the Guicowar's authority. In furtherance of this object his Majesty's 86th Regiment was dispatched to Baroda, when one of the Arab officers with the acquiescence of the Raja, offered to put the British troops in possession of one of the gates, but this stratagem failing of success, it became necessary to resort to a regular siege. Baroda was accordingly invested in January 1803, and obstinately defended by the Arabs until a practicable breach was effected, when they capitulated, binding themselves to evacuate all the fortresses, liberate the Raja, and quit the province, on payment of their arrears.

By the above mentioned treaty it was determined likewise, that all the Guicowar's political arrangements at Poona should be conducted by the British resident conjunctly with the Guicowar's vakeel.

By a supplementary treaty, concluded on the 18th February, 1803, the following districts were permanently ceded for the support of the subsidiary force; viz.

The pergunnah of Dholka, yielding a revenue of	. .	450,000 rupees.
Ditto of Neriad, ditto	. . . . .	175,000
Ditto of Bejapoor, ditto	. . . . .	130,000
The Tuppa of Kurree, contiguous to Bejapoor	. . .	25,000
	Rupees	780,000

On the 2d June 1803, the Guicowar agreed to subsidize an additional body of

1000 infantry, for the payment of which the following cessions were made over; viz.

The pergunnah of Matter, valued at	130,000
Ditto of Modha, ditto	110,000
The customs of Kimkatodra, north of the Tuptee	50,000
Rupees	290,000

Subsequent events produced a still more intimate connexion between the British government and the Guicowar state, the affairs of the latter being involved in such confusion, and the debt accumulating so rapidly, as to threaten the absorption of the whole revenue. In this dilemma the Guicowar solicited the interference of his allies, and agreed to delegate the management of his affairs to the British resident at his court, which office happened at that time, fortunately for himself, to be filled by Colonel Alexander Walker of the Bombay military establishment. Through the exertions of that able officer many important improvements were carried into effect. A large proportion of the annual revenue, before fluctuating and capricious for want of power to enforce the collections, was thenceforward realized with punctuality, and without the yearly interference of a military force, whose depredations were scarcely less destructive than those of a hostile army. The Guicowar's family in all its branches was amply provided for, and his tumultuary troops reduced to subordination and brought under discipline. In 1807, the Guicowar's revenue amounted to 7,494,663 rupees, and the expenditure in the reformed establishment to 6,987,685 rupees. In 1810, the revenues were 6,846,979 rupees, and the expenditure 5,005,582 rupees; the annual surplus being applicable to the discharge of the state incumbrances. In 1812, the whole of the debt due to the British government, originally amounting to 2,284,511, had been liquidated, and the debt due to private bankers reduced to 2,881,981 rupees, and the discharge of the whole was expected to be completed by 1817; but this was retarded by a famine which occurred in 1813, during which the Guicowar government saved multitudes from starving, by employing them on the roads and in the improvement of the capital, which contributed greatly to its salubrity. On the 24th November, 1816, the Guicowar's debts stood as follows:

Due under the guarantee of the British government	8,564,101 rupees.
Other debts	855,552
	9,419,653
Deduct remissions obtained	3,921,963
Outstanding debts	5,497,690

Dakjee Dadajee, the native agent of the British resident, prevailed on the creditors to accept the above sum in full discharge of all their claims, and it was raised by a new loan, 3 per cent. lower than the Baroda government had been accustomed to pay. In some cases, owing to the exorbitant rate of interest formerly exacted, the principal of the debt has been paid three times over.

Anund Row Guicowar died in 1813. The great failing of this prince was avarice, or rather a blind rage for hoarding, which absorbed every other passion except a strong craving for intoxicating drugs. He was succeeded by Futteh Singh Guicowar, who, in 1814, deputed Gungadhur Shastry on a mission to Poona for the purpose of negotiating a settlement of the Peshwa's claims on the Baroda state; but the Peshwa objected to receive the Shastry under the character of Dewan, asserting that the Guicowar, as his feudatory, had no right to appoint a Dewan without his permission. The British government, however, maintained that the Peshwa was precluded from any interference with the Guicowar state, by the obligations of the British guarantee, pledged to secure the legitimate succession to the Baroda throne, wholly independent of the Poona administration. To adjust the pecuniary claims of the Peshwa, the Shastry was authorized to offer 20 lacks of rupees, but this overture was rejected. A subsequent offer of 50 lacks of rupees in three years, provided the Peshwa granted a five years lease of the farm of Ahmedabad, was also refused; the Peshwa considering it discreditable to have his territories managed by another prince, and his objections appearing insurmountable, the necessary orders were issued for the surrender of the Peshwa's share of Ahmedabad and its dependent territories, which took place the 23d October, 1814.

Subsequent to this, the usual chaos of intrigues took place among the native agents, not one of whom had the slightest power or authority to arrange a single point; but it had the effect of making the Peshwa adopt so preposterous a line of policy, that the resident at his court was compelled to inform him, that the British government declined all interference in the adjustment of his claims on the Guicowar, until his highness explicitly relinquished all pretensions to intermeddle with the domestic affairs of that state, which, if he ever possessed, were totally abrogated by the treaty of Bassein. These discussions were proceding with the usual Maharatta procrastination, when they were prematurely terminated by the death of the unfortunate ambassador Gungadhur Shastry, who was assinated at Punderpoor on the 19th July, 1815. This person had formerly been the native agent of the Bombay presidency at the court of Baroda, and in the month of May, 1813, at the particular request of Futteh Singh, the reigning Guicowar, was nominated prime minister, in which capacity he had acquitted himself to the satisfaction of all parties.

The resident at Poona, on being informed of this atrocious act, addressed a very strong representation to the Peshwa, calling on his highness to take such measures as might bring the murderers to justice. Subsequently he demanded the surrender of Trimbukjee Dainglia, the favourite minister of his highness, and also of Bhugwunt Row Guicowar and Govind Row Bundajee, subjects of the Baroda state, against whom suspicions attached. After a very serious and protracted dicussion with the British resident, the Peshwa consented to give up his minister, who was accordingly removed to Tannah in October, 1815, where he was kept in close confinement under a guard of Europeans.

In 1815, in consequence of the existing confusion, the Bombay government endeavoured to effect an alteration in the mode of administering justice to the natives, within the Guicowar's dominions, without introducing too great a change in the judicial system of the country. In the last century, when the Maharattas had established their power in Gujerat, they endeavoured to restore order and tranquillity, but having no determined system, no institution was created where redress of grievances could be obtained, so that the injured parties had recourse to personal revenge. The anarchy arising from such a condition of affairs, existed in full perfection when the British government first interfered with the Guicowar, some improvement therefore appeared very desirable if it could be amicably effected without hurting the prejudices of the natives. Punchaits, or arbitrators by a jury of five, first occurred; but this mode of settling disputes, like many others, extremely beautiful in theory, is evidently adapted for a more primitive, and less corrupted state of society than is extant in Gujerat, where the employments of the people are diversified, their habits industrious yet licentious, and where rights had not previously been decided by any written law, but by the innumerable intricacies of local usages. In a community so constituted, judicial establishments with positive powers seemed necessary, as well to give effectual redress to grievances, as to collate the various usages, and by a record of decisions to establish a body of precedents, essential to the regular administration of laws springing from an infinite variety of local customs.

In the opinion of the people, the excellence of Punchaits arises from their being at liberty to resort to them, or not, as they think proper, and in reality, arbitration is seldom resorted to in Gujerat, without the express intervention of the government. Besides this, there is a wide difference between a punchait and an English jury. The latter act under the responsibility of an oath; they have evidence sifted by able counsel, which is afterwards summed up by the judge, and they give their award before the public. A respectable Hindoo would think himself degraded, if desired to swear, and no native government would tender him an oath. The punchaits sit by themselves, and solicit evidence at

their own option, and they publish none of the reasons on which they grounded their award. The consequence has been, that discontent with their decision has so generally prevailed as to warrant a doubt of the purity of their motives; and hence arises the necessity of a court of justice to investigate charges of corruption brought against members of punchaits.

After much deliberation, a new court, at the recommendation of Captain Carnac, was established, which tribunal takes cognizance both of civil and criminal cases, an arrangement deemed eligible as tending to withdraw the sovereign from the direct administration of criminal justice. Indeed, Futteh Singh Guicowar was so averse to the infliction of death, that he suspended all capital punishments. On the establishment of the new court, it was thought very desirable that it should be presided over by some member of the Guicowar family, but unfortunately none were found to possess the requisite talents, so that it became necessary to make a selection from among individuals of a lower station. An opposition to the institution was at first experienced, but this spirit gradually subsided when the justice of the decisions in some civil suits became public. The judges, however, soon became corrupt, and the reputation of the court, as a natural consequence, declined. This impurity is in part to be attributed to the inadequacy of their salaries, (which, to native civil officers, are absurdly too low all over India,) at the same time, it may be doubted whether any salary would entirely eradicate this inherent defect of the native character, while the sovereign himself openly practises the most undisguised peculation.

The British detachment stationed here ought to amount to 3000 effective men, but they have rarely ever reached this number, which is of the less consequence, as the Guicowar's own troops are in a very respectable state of efficiency, and during the campaign of 1809, in the Gujerat peninsula, much benefit was experienced from their co-operation. It is certainly extremely desirable (were it practicable), that the British government should gradually detach itself from that intimate and internal interference in the details of the Guicowar's affairs, which necessity had in the beginning rendered expedient. But, on the other hand, it is to be apprehended, that if the supervision of the British authority be withdrawn, and the controul transferred to the narrow and unenlightened management of a native ruler, the great work which has been so successfully accomplished by the labour and perseverance of a series of years, would be inevitably destroyed, and the country relapse to its pristine state of rapine and anarchy. Had the British government been actuated by views of aggrandizement, its line of policy would have been to discontinue at the earliest period all interposition with the Baroda state, which would again be involved in those difficulties and embarrassments which had originally threatened its total dissolution, and these

would again create occasion for British aid, and further cession of territory to indemnify the expense.—*(Public MS. Documents, Walker, Carnac, Marquis Wellesley, &c. &c. &c.)*

BAHADURPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 62 miles E. by S. from Cambay. Lat. 22° 11′ N. long. 73° 46′ E.

BROACH *(Barigosha.)*—A district in the Gujerat province, situated principally between the 21st and 22d degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the gulf of Cambay. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—"Circar Behroatch, containing 14 mahals; measurement 349,771 begahs; revenue 21,845,663 dams; seyurghal 141,820. This circar furnishes 990 cavalry, and 20,800 infantry."

This is one of the best cultivated and populated tracts on the west coast of India, and was acquired finally by the Bombay presidency, at the treaty of peace concluded with Dowlet Row Sindia, in December 1803. As a particular favour, the Peshwa was then allowed to retain the pergunnahs of Ahmood, Jumbosier, and Dubboi, being old fiefs of his family, and even the town of Olpar, within seven miles of Surat. This intermixture of dominion is not uncommon in Hindostan, but was always more customary among the Maharattas than any other nation. The river Nerbudda separates the Broach from the Oclaseer and Hansoot pergunnahs. The two last lie contiguous to each other, and Oclaseer town is directly opposite to Broach, while Hansoot is further down the river to the west.

A small portion of country immediately adjacent to the city, is properly called the district of Broach. Three-fourths of this territory, containing 122 villages, are named Kanum lands, and possess a rich soil, preferable to the Barra land close to the sea. The annual government assessment upon Kanum lands in constant cultivation is 12 rupees per acre; but after a year of fallow, it is double that rate. Land which is allowed to lie fallow, is named vassel; in contradistinction to that named bhoot, which is tilled every season. The crop on the first is double that on the last, and the rent in proportion. Near the town of Broach, a begah (one-third of an acre) of common vassel is assessed at eight rupees, and one of bhoot at four rupees. To raise this double produce, the spot must be improved by exposure, irrigation, and manures.

Forty villages bordering on the sea coast compose the division of Amliseer and Packajin, and their soil and climate are considerably different from the rest of the maritime tract. In this particular section, which is named Barra, cultivation does not commence until August and September, and on this species of land, the government assessment may generally be averaged at three rupees per begah, or one guinea per acre. The soil of the pergunnahs of Broach, Jumbosier, and the adjacent ones east of the gulf of Cambay, suits well with the cultivation

of cotton, which is sown on fallowed spots along with rice, the latter being of speedy growth, and reaped at the opening of the rainy season. In 1804, the Grassia lots of land in the Broach district exempted from the revenue assessments, amounted to 58,000 begahs. The most important alienations from government consist of lands called Waunta, which are for most the part in the possession of Grassias, who hold it by the tenure of general proscription from remote antiquity; but there are other lands held free, which have not the same claim to exemption. The estimated revenue of Broach for the year 1804-5 was 1,150,609 rupees, exceeding the receipts of the preceding years 95,071 rupees; but so progressive had been its prosperity, that in 1813-14, the land revenue yielded 1,350,553

The sayer or variable imposts	169,199
Customs	88,419
Total rupees	1,608,172

In 1812, the population of the Broach pergunnah consisted of—

Hindoos	60,448
Mahommedans	15,895
	76,343
Broach town	32,716
Oclaseer pergunnah and town	29,969
Hansoot ditto	18,955
Total	157,983

In that year, the result of a tolerably accurate investigation of the town and pergunnah of Broach, gave 173 inhabitants to the square mile; the proportion, however, of the revenue to the extent of surface and number of inhabitants seems unaccountably great.

In the pergunnah of Broach, much greater order and tranquillity prevail than in the northern districts of Gujerat, nor is there any serious obstructions, in the manners and habits of the people, to the introduction of the British code of laws and permanent system of revenue. Owing also to the concentrated position of the Broach, Oclaseer, and Hansoot pergunnahs, it has not been found difficult to preserve an efficient patrole on the borders, by means of a horse police, which in the extensive and intermingled districts of Kaira and Surat is not practicable, except with an establishment of such magnitude, as would render the expense insupportable. The number of violent deaths and robberies have greatly decreased since the district devolved to the British. In former times the delinquents being almost universally punished by the infliction of fines,

by no means proportioned either to the crime or to the amount of their property, the rich could commit enormities with impunity; at present the punishments being personal, their apprehensions of the consequences are much greater. Formerly also, the custom of sending threatening letters, destroying or injuring crops on the ground, and burning stacks and houses prevailed (as it still does in the Maharatta portions of Gujerat) to a disgraceful extent; but these outrages are now but little heard of, the inhabitants being quiet, orderly, and industrious, and the land remarkably high priced. Within the Broach pergunnah, Bhatts are not known as securities.

When sinking under the weight of years, or absorbed in spiritual contemplation, Hindoo penitents not unfrequently descend into a pit dug by themselves, or their disciples, and submit to be smothered alive. This is related of Kuveer, from whose toothpick, the natives assert, sprung the great tree on an island in the Reva, or Nerbudda, of which the following is a description: On an island formed by the Nerbudda, ten miles from Broach, stands the famous Banyan tree, supposed to be the largest and most extraordinary in existence. It is named Kuveer Bur, in honour of a famous saint, and was formerly much larger than at present; for high floods have at different times carried away the banks of the island where it grows, and along with them such parts of the tree as had extended their roots so far. What still remains is about 2000 feet in circumference, measuring round the different stems; but the hanging branches, the roots of which have not yet reached the ground, cover a much larger extent. The chief trunks of this tree amount to 350, all superior in size to the generality of English oaks and elms, and the smaller stems, forming strong supporters, are more than 3000. From each of these new branches, hanging roots are proceeding, which in time will form trunks and become the parents of a future progeny. This is the tree described by Milton, in Paradise Lost. The natives have a tradition, that it is 3000 years old, and assert that 7000 persons can repose under its shade.

Being so conveniently situated, the Bombay presidency made many attempts to obtain this district, and had possession for a short time prior to 1782, but at that period, in order to procure the concurrence of Madhajee Sindia to the treaty of Salbey, Broach with its valuable territory, yielding a revenue of £200,000, was by a private and separate agreement ceded to him. Since the final cession in 1803, its prosperity has been uninterrupted, although it has been greatly annoyed by irruptions from the Rajpeepla country, which sends forth such gangs of armed Bheels, that they almost set at defiance an unarmed police. In fact, in 1815, the principal and most serious duties of that department were more to guard against the effects of the ill regulated government of

foreign territories, than those of the Broach district itself.—*(Drummond, Romer, Moore, Bellasis, Lord Valentia, &c. &c. &c.)*

BROACH.—The capital of the preceding district, situated on an eminence on the north bank of the Nerbudda, 25 miles from the entrance of the river. Lat. 21° 46′ N. long. 73° 14′ E. It is said to derive its name from the Hindoo saint, or devotee, Bhrigu, and to be properly written Bhrigu Kshetra, or Bhrigu Pura, the town or place of Bhrigu. It is thought to have been the Barygaza of the ancients; and when it surrendered to the Emperor Acber, in 1572, still continued a place of great trade. In 1780, it was about two miles and a half in circumference, and fortified in the oriental manner with high walls, perforated for musquetry, and flanked with] towers; the whole, combined with its natural advantages, forming an Asiatic fortress of considerable strength.

The houses at Broach are built like those at Surat and Cambay, and the streets generally are narrow and dirty. In the town and vicinity are many dilapidated mosques and mausoleums. Being situated in a fertile province, it is well supplied with provisions and game; and the Nerbudda, which washes its southern wall, abounds with carp and other fish. This town has always been a place of considerable trade, and still annually exports large quantities of raw and manufactured cotton to Surat and Bombay; but the Broach muslins are inferior to those of Bengal, nor do their coloured chintzes equal those of the Coromandel coast, although the water of the Nerbudda is said to possess a peculiar property in bleaching clothes to a pure white. Besides cotton, the principal exports are wheat, joaree, rice, and other grains, nuts, oil seeds, and dyeing shrubs and plants. At Broach, the hire of an able-bodied man for a whole day is seven-pice, or four-pence sterling; a woman five-pice; boys and girls from a halfpenny to two-pence; the whole of which rates are almost double those of Bengal, in the manufacturing districts. The price of food for common occasions is from one to two farthings per pound; and on festivals they can afford a relish of milk or fish.

At the period of the great famine in 1791, the number of houses in the district immediately attached to the town of Broach was 14,835, and the inhabitants 80,922; after the famine, it was found that 2351 of the former had been abandoned, and that 25,295 of the latter had died. In 1804, the whole number of residents in Broach fort and the environs was reported to be 22,468 souls; in 1812, the population was found by actual enumeration to be as follows :—

Hindoos	19,836
Mahommedans	9,888
Parsees	2,992
Total	32,716

In 1807, there were 25 nats, or societies, in Broach, of the Banyan caste, comprehending 5261 individuals of both sexes. At this place there is a pinjrapole, or hospital for animals, supported by donations from the Hindoo inhabitants. Every marriage and mercantile transaction is taxed for the pinjrapole, by which above £1000 is raised annually, a great portion of which is absorbed into the coffers of the managers. The only useful animals it at present contains are milch cows, which yield the expense of their keeping; among the useless, a few wild bulls, and some monkies may be named.

By the treaty concluded with the Peshwa and the combined Maharatta powers, in June, 1782, the city and pergunnah of Broach were ceded to the East India Company. In July, 1782, they were made over to Madhajee Sindia, ostensibly, as a recompense for his humane treatment of the British prisoners and hostages taken at Wurgaum; but in reality for his assistance in bringing about the pacification, which at that time, on account of Hyder's invasion of the Carnatic, was urgently wanted. In 1772, Broach was besieged by an army from Bombay, commanded by General Wedderburne, brother to Lord Loughborough, who was killed under the walls; and a few days after his death it was captured by storm, although then a place of very considerable strength. On the death of Madhajee Sindia, into whose possession it had come as above described, it devolved to his successor, Dowlet Row Sindia, from whom it was taken, on the 29th of August, 1803, by an army under Colonel Woodington, and has remained with the British government ever since.

Travelling distance from Bombay, 221; from Oojein, 266; and from Poona, 287 miles.—*(Drummond, Wilford, Moore, Rennell, Romer, &c. &c.)*

Ruttunpoor.—A town in the Gujerat province, 14 miles E. from Broach. Lat. 21° 44′ N. long. 73° 26′ E.

Deijbarra.—A town in the Gujerat province, 24 miles W. from Broach. Lat. 21° 45′ N. long. 72° 50′ E.

Jumbosier *(Jambhúsira)*.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, situated on the river Jumbosier, 26 miles N. N. W. from Broach. Lat. 22° 6′ N. long. 73° 3′ E. The pergunnah of Jumbosier consists mostly of open cultivated plains, with trees only near the villages. The fields are enclosed and the country adorned with plantations of mangoe, tamarind, and banyan trees. The soil is light and fertile, and well adapted for the raising of cotton and all Indian grains. The western plains are of a rich black earth, and yield abundant crops of wheat and cotton. In 1780, the town of Jumbosier was two miles in circumference, and surrounded by a mud wall. Some of the Hindoo houses were large, but the exterior destitute of elegance or proportion. The interior

usually consists of dark low rooms, surrounding an open area, which sometimes contains a garden and fountains. The stairs are always steep and narrow; the roofs often flat; but frequently also covered with tiles. The inferior houses have either tiled roofs, or are thatched with jungle grass or the leaves of the palmyra. Like most large towns in Gujerat, Jumbosier is situated near an extensive lake, the banks of which are ornamented with Hindoo temples, overshadowed by mangoe and banyan trees, and the surface of the water almost concealed by the leaves and flowers of the lotus. A considerable trade is carried on from hence with Bombay; the exports consisting of cotton, grain, oil, and piece goods. The tide here rises from five to six fathoms.

The Jumbosier pergunnah has long been subject to the payment of a choute, or nominal fourth of the revenues, to the possessors of Broach, and which is still paid by the functionaries of the Peshwa to the revenue officers of that district. In the time of the Nabobs of Broach, it was collected at the following rates:

Jumbosier paid from 29,000 to 35,000 rupees.
Ahmood from . . 15,000 to 25,000.

During the British possession of Broach prior to 1782, the contributions on this account were from Jumbosier 31,000, and from Ahmood 16,000; and thus they remained from 1782, when Broach and its dependencies were ceded to Madhajee Sindia, who fixed with the Peshwa the choutes at 12,000 rupees from Jumbosier, and 6600 from Ahmood. On the re-conquest of Broach in 1803 by the British, the chout again reverted to them, and was paid in the Broach currency until 1814, when an attempt was made by the Peshwa's officers to substitute the Jumbosier rupee, a base coin of inferior value, which was immediately rejected by the Bombay presidency. The sum fixed for the choute is greatly inferior to what a real choute, or fourth, would be, if strictly exacted. It consequently appeared reasonable, that a sum so fixed should undergo no further diminution. Gangadhara, a celebrated Hindoo mathematician, was a native of this town.—(*Public MS. Documents, Forbes, Colebrooke, &c. &c.*)

AHMOOD (*Amod*).—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, 20 miles N. by W. from Broach. Lat. 22° 3′ N. long. 73° 6′ E. The soil of this small subdivision is generally a rich black earth, suitable for cotton, rice, wheat, and a great variety of Indian grains. The cotton produced is reckoned the best in the province. This district and Jumbosier, although subject to the Peshwa, pay a choute to the possessors of Broach; but the sum is very small, compared with a fourth share of the revenue.—(*Forbes, &c. &c. &c.*)

OCLASEER.—This town stands about five miles due south from Broach, from

which it is separated by the Nerbudda river. Lat. 21° 41′ N. long. 73° 13′ E. In 1812, the result of actual investigation proved this town to contain:—

	Hindoos	6,565
	Mahommedans	1,998
	Parsees	348
The pergunnah:—	Hindoos	16,512
	Mahommedans	4,546
	Total	29,969

HANSOOT *(Hansavati)*.—This town is situated about 14 miles S. W. from Broach. Lat. 21° 39′ N. long. 73° 3′ E. In 1812, its total population was ascertained to be:—

	Hindoos	2,517
	Mahommedans	1,091
	Parsees	131
		3,739
In the pergunnah—	Hindoos	13,938
	Mahommedans	915
	Parsees	363
	Total	18,955

OLPAR *(Ulupara)*.—A town in the Maharatta territories in the province of Gujerat, seven miles N. from Surat. Lat. 21° 21′ N. long. 73° 3′ E. By the treaty concluded with the Peshwa, on the 16th December, 1803, supplemental to that of Bassein, the pergunnah of Olpar, yielding a revenue of 316,000 rupees, was as a particular favour restored to the Peshwa; but as, on account of its proximity to the city of Surat, it was of great value to the British government, it was agreed that it should be so managed and governed by the Maharatta authorities, as to conduce to the convenience of that city, and to the promotion of an amicable commercial intercourse: the sovereignty of the river Tuptee to remain with the British government.

Subsequent to the above date, the Peshwa bestowed this valuable tract in jaghire, on one of his principal functionaries, designated by the title of the Vinchorr Cur, whose hostility, in 1817, being particularly conspicuous and persevering, it was taken possession of by a Bombay detachment. *(Treaties, &c.)*

SINNORE *(or Zinnore.)*—This town stands on the steep banks of the Nerbudda, having a flight of 100 stone steps from the houses to the water-side. Lat.

21° 56′ N. long. 73° 35′ E. 26 miles E. N. E. from Broach. The Hindoo temples, at Zinnore, although less splendid than those at Chandode, and now in a state of great decay, are esteemed peculiarly sacred, and the appearance of the whole indicates a prior state of prosperity, which has passed away. In 1780, it contained about 10,000 inhabitants, mostly weavers of coarse cotton cloths for the Persian and Arabian markets. It was then a large open straggling place, without any other fortification than the ravines that surrounded it. The Zinnore pergunnah at that date contained 50 inhabited villages, and produced abundant crops of cotton, the cultivation, gathering, spinning and weaving of which employed a great proportion of the inhabitants.—*(Forbes, &c.)*

CHANDODE.—A town and pergunnah, intersected by ravines and water-courses, in the province of Gujerat, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, about 35 miles E. N. E. from Broach. Lat. 22° 1′ N. long. 20° 40′ E. Few places in Gujerat, in the opinion of the Hindoos, equal Chandode in sanctity, two-thirds of the inhabitants being Brahmins and devotees of various descriptions. At particular festivals it is resorted to by pilgrims, who here perform their religious ceremonies and purify themselves by bathing in the sacred stream of the Nerbudda. The principal temple of Chandode, is finished in a style much superior to the generality of Hindoo edifices, the central spire being light and in good proportion, and the interior of the dome, which is 40 feet in diameter, painted by artists from Ahmedabad. Besides this, there are many other temples, the whole abounding with exterior sculpture, but very inferior to that of Elephanta and Carli.—*(Forbes, &c.)*

NAUNDODE.—A district in the province of Gujerat, situated between the Nerbudda and Tuptee rivers, and bounded on the west by Broach. Much the greater portion of this district is tributary to Maharatta chiefs; but the town and pergunnah of Naundode, which stands in latitude 21° 55′ N. long. 73° 43′ E. 32 miles E. by N. from Surat, is comprehended within the jurisdiction of the Broach magistrate. The other towns of note are Rajpepla and Dhergong.

WAUJPOOR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 45 miles E. by N. from Surat. Lat. 21° 24′ N. long. 73° 47′ E.

RAJPEPLA.—A town and district in the province of Gujerat, situated about 34 miles E. from Broach. Lat. 21° 46′ N. long. 73° 45′ E. This territory has been estimated at 100 miles in length, by nearly as great a breadth, and contains extensive tracts of fertile land, which, not long ago, supported 500 towns and villages; but such had been the distracted state of the country from 1803, that in 1815, only 15 villages remained, and the vast wastes of Rajpepla served as a secure asylum for every species of marauder, and a depôt for their booty. Besides their internal revenues, the chiefs of this miserable principality have long

asserted enormous Grassia claims on the British territories, the origin of which have never been clearly ascertained. They appear, however, to have been first permitted by the Moguls, and subsequently by the Maharatta states, although the Rajpepla chief is a tributary to the latter; such is the complicated nature of Indian finance. With respect to the British dominions, he levies Tora gras from 16 villages in the Hansoot pergunnah, and also from some in that of Broach. If the manner in which these payments were originally extorted be left out of the question, it does not appear that they now operate oppressively on the inhabitants, because they are allowed deductions in consequence from the taxable resources of the villages, and considered accordingly in the government assessments, and none of these villages pay the slightest contribution of the nature of Tora gras to the British government. Although really understood as such, these payments can hardly be considered as the "price of protection." The "price of forbearance" would probably be a more correct designation of an income, the largest portion of which appears to have been obtained by arbitrary imposition, and acquiesced in for fear of outrage.

The state of Rajpepla is tributary to the Guicowar, and in 1815 was nominally governed by a minor Raja, ten years of age, named Pertaub Singh. On the death of the prior Raja in 1810, Nursingh, the elder brother of the deceased, but whose right of primogeniture had been set aside in consequence of blindness, again agitated his claim, and thereby threw the country into the utmost confusion, which was much aggravated by the ruinous system pursued by the Baroda government. Finding that owing to the subsisting anarchy, the tribute amounting to 60,000 rupees was greatly in arrear, they resolved on farming the country to a Baroda banker, who shewed himself much more alert in extorting the revenue, than in maintaining the ancient military and police establishments. The consequence was that, in the absence of all coercion, Jeewa Busawa, a powerful Bheel, plundered the Company's village of Singhpoor, in the Oclaseer pergunnah, of property estimated at 21,068 rupees, the Rajpepla territories being so impoverished that they contained no booty worth taking. This depredator was an inhabitant of Sagbaree, under the Rajpepla government, and during the disturbances had attained the elevation of Busawa, or head Bheel, having been formerly a distinguished freebooter in Khandesh. His followers, the Arabs and Sindeans, were adventurers, parties of whom are to be found in the service of most petty native chiefs, whom they usually at last retain in subjection; the Bheels were bow and arrow men, the supposed aborigines of the province.

Rajpepla being tributary to Baroda, application was made to the Guicowar,

and in the mean time the revenue derived to Rajpepla from certain villages within the British boundaries, under the denomination of Tora gras, or ready money payments, amounting to about 14,000 rupees, was attached. The Guicowar immediately detached a force, which acted with considerable spirit, and soon drove the Bheel Jeewa to the last extremity. During these operations, proceedings were discovered which furnished reason to suspect, that these excesses had been connived at, if not encouraged, by the Peshwa's local officers in Khandesh, and a remonstrance was in consequence made at Poona. All these circumstances combined had so thinned the inhabitants, that in the beginning of 1814, nearly all the agricultural portion of the Rajpepla population had deserted the country, many families taking refuge in the Oclaseer pergunnah, others retiring across the Nerbudda, while a considerable number found shelter in an island formed by that river, and belonging to Broach. Between the 1st of February and the middle of April that year, 39 Rajpepla villages were wholly, or in part, burned down, and above 5000 houses reduced to ashes. The wild Bheels, taking advantage of the subversion of all authority, roamed about in every direction, plundering indiscriminately friend and foe; for in the general confusion neutrality afforded no protection, every leader of a few soldiers assuming the highest functions of sovereignty.

Meeting with little resistance from such discordant interests, the Guicowar's forces prosecuted their operations, and Rajpepla in 1815 peaceably surrendered; and the contending factions subscribed an engagement, to submit their claims to the decision of a punchait, or native jury of five. During the period allowed for determining their respective rights, both parties consented to suspend all exercise of authority, and to permit the Guicowar's government to administer the affairs of Rajpepla, until full indemnification had been afforded for the expenses incurred in effecting the pacification.—*(Public MS. Documents, Bellasis, Sutherland, Romer, Carnac, &c.)*

NEEMOODRA.—A village in the Rajpepla district, three miles to the east of which lie the celebrated cornelian mines. The country in the immediate vicinity of the mines is but little cultivated, and on account of the jungles, and their inhabitants the tigers, no human habitations are found nearer than Ruttunpoor, which is seven miles off. The miners have huts at this place, where the stones are burned.

The cornelian mines are situated in the wildest part of the jungle, and consist of numerous shafts worked down perpendicularly, about four feet wide; the deepest about 50 feet. Some extend at the bottom in a horizontal direction, but usually not far, the nature of these pits being such as to prevent their being

worked a second year, on account of the heavy rains causing the banks to fall in, so that new ones must be opened at the conclusion of every rainy season. The soil is gravelly, consisting chiefly of quartz sand, reddened with iron, and a little clay. The nodules weigh from a few ounces to two or even three pounds, and lie close to each other, but for the most part distinct, not being in strata, but scattered through the masses and in the greatest abundance. On the spot the cornelians are mostly of a blackish olive colour, like common dark flints; others somewhat lighter, and others still lighter with a slight milky tinge; but it is quite uncertain what appearance they will assume after they have undergone the process of burning. From Neemoodra they are carried by the merchants to Cambay, where they are cut, polished, and formed into the beautiful ornaments for which that city is so justly celebrated.—*(Copland, &c. &c.)*

SURAT *(Surashtra)*:—A district in the province of Gujerat, situated at the south-western extremity, between the 20th and 22d degrees of north latitude, and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, described as follows: "Circar Sooret, containing 31 mahals; measurement 1,312,315 begahs; revenue 19,035,177 dams; seyurghal 182,270 dams. This circar furnishes 2000 cavalry, and 5500 infantry. Ranier, which is situated on the opposite side of Tuptee, is a port dependent on Surat. The followers of Zerdusht (Zoroaster), when they fled from Persia, settled at Surat, where they practise the doctrines inculcated by the Zend, and its commentary the Pazend. From the liberality of his majesty's (Acber) disposition, every sect exercises its particular mode of worship, without suffering the least molestation. Through the negligence of the soubahdars and their officers, several parts of this circar are possessed by Europeans, among which number are Damaun, Surjaun, Tarapoor, and Bassein, all cities and emporiums."

The modern or British district of Surat, consists of tracts of country acquired at different periods from the native powers, principally the Peshwa and Guicowar, and still so intermixed with the territories of these princes, that it is impossible to form an accurate estimate of their extent. The head quarters of the judge and magistrate and judicial establishment are in the city of Surat, which will be described separately. All lands subordinate to this collectorship, excepting the alienations by grants or otherwise, are the undoubted property of government. The soil is considered vested in the ryot or cultivator, so long as he tills it and pays the rent, but in the event of his failure, the ground reverts to government. The rate of assessment in each village varies according to the value of the produce, and the result of the season, favourable or the reverse. One-third of the produce belongs to government; another third is supposed to defray the expense of cultivation, with the village charges; the remaining third is

the profit of the cultivators. Previous to the grain being cut and removed, the quantity of land in cultivation is measured, and the amount of the assessment ascertained, under the superintendance of the collector. Such villages as are least under the controul of the native revenue officers are always found in the most flourishing condition.

In 1811, the actual net increase of the revenues under the Surat collectorship was 274,394 rupees more than the sum at which they were valued when ceded by the Peshwa and Guicowar. In 1812 the estimated revenues were—

Land revenue	918,359
Sayer or variable imposts	463,632
Mint	12,283
Customs	180,139
Rupees	1,563,813

Abstract of the gross revenue of Surat in 1813-14.

Land	981,448
Sayer	435,883
Mint	14,768
Customs	165,546
Rupees	1,597,648

This great increase of the land revenue did not originate from any augmentation of impost on the cultivator, but from a large portion of waste land having been brought into cultivation in the pergunnahs of Chickly and Chowrassy, and from an increase of revenue in the Peshwa's cessions. A small decrease took place, from the suppression of that objectionable source of revenue, heretofore derived from licensing gaming stalls in the city of Surat. In the above year the whole of the Surat revenues were realized with the exception of 418 rupees, and the total debits against them, including charges of collection, the Nabob's stipend, &c. were 336,261 rupees.

With respect to the internal police, the Surat district is so intersected by the territories of other states, and petty jaghiredars, that the jurisdiction of the magistrate is much interrupted, and his exertions for the suppression of crimes impeded; so many preparatory ceremonies and negotiations must be gone through, before a thief can be arrested, or stolen property recovered, that both are removed before an effectual search can commence. A class of gang robbers who infest this district, are the armed rabble enlisted by the Grassias having claims on the revenues of certain lands. These ruffians are generally headed by some

desperate Jemadar, renowned for his cruelties and extortions, who enters the British territory under the pretence of collecting his master's dues, at the same time extorting double the sum for himself and followers. When the Patells, or head villagers, attempt to resist these exactions, their villages are plundered and children carried into captivity, to be held to ransom on some future opportunity. In former years they usually introduced these demands by setting fire to a stack, or murdering one of the villagers, to shew they were in earnest; but of late these criminal acts have seldom been aggravated by arson or murder. No instance of traga (immolation or sacrifice of the Bhatts) had occurred since the the British obtained possession of the tracts composing this jurisdiction up to the year 1816, a period of 15 years.

Marine and river piracy is carried on to a great extent in the Surat jurisdiction, owing to the easy communication held by the vessels at the mouth of the Tuptee, with the natives dwelling on the opposite bank, which is not subject to the British empire. There are two favourite anchorages near the mouth of the Tuptee, called Toddy Bank, and Swally Hole, the former being so named from the quantity of toddy procured on the spot from the neighbouring villages; for which article the native captains of crews make no scruple of bartering their owner's cotton and other goods; and through the same medium and mode of payment, they also procure tobacco, hot peppers, and vegetables. Swally Hole has also its conveniences for this nefarious traffic, and also for robbing the wrecks of boats and vessels, which are frequently run on shore intentionally in its neighbourhood, and all representations to the Maharatta functionaries, who participate in the plunder, fruitless. This river plunder, however, is moderate when compared with the depredations committed in the roads, and on the coast between Surat and Damaun, where, on the slightest plea of bad weather or distress, whole bales of cotton and other goods are thrown overboard near creeks and villages, where the native captains and crews have relations or partners ready to pick them up.

In consequence of this practice, although hardly any cotton is grown to the south of Surat, every village between that city and Bulsaur is commonly full of cotton, which they facetiously term cotton of the sea. Frequently by a concerted plan, a party come from the shore and capture and plunder the vessel entirely; the booty being distributed in regular shares among the different villages on the sea coast, among which that of Domus is the most notorious. The villages belong principally to the Nabob Ibrahim Khan, alias Bulloo Meah of Sacheen, whose income would be greatly deteriorated were these proceedings suppressed. During the months of cultivation the inhabitants of this

Nabob's villages have sufficient employment, but after the crops are gathered they devote their unoccupied time to another species of harvest, that of piracy and plunder, from the produce of which a considerable proportion of their rent is liquidated; those most eligibly situated for the latter vocation, paying the largest revenue. The country throughout the district is highly cultivated, and in the vicinity of the city the fields are generally enclosed, producing wheat, rice, joaree, bajeree, and other Indian grains, diversified by crops of cotton, hemp, tobacco, colouring plants, and an infinite variety of vegetables and oil seeds.—*(Bourchier, Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, Forbes, &c. &c.)*

SURAT.—A large and populous city, situated on the south bank of the Tuptee, and the modern capital of the Gujerat province. Lat. 21° 11′ N. long. 73° 7′ E. The outer walls of this city are seven miles in circumference, having 12 gates, with irregular towers between each. The inner town is surrounded by a similar wall, and unequal number of gates; the whole in a ruinous condition. The streets are dirty, narrow, and irregular; the houses generally lofty, and crowded with inhabitants. Between the outer and inner walls are many streets and houses, but as in most eastern cities much of that space is occupied by villas, gardens, and cultivated fields, producing fruit, grain, and vegetables. The public buildings here are few and mean, and the Nabob's palace contemptible. The mosques and minarets are small, and destitute of taste or elegance, the Hindoo edifices equally insignificant, and most of the caravanserais in ruin.

The most remarkable institution in Surat, is the Banyan hospital, of which we have no description more recent than 1780. It then consisted of a large piece of ground enclosed by high walls, and subdivided into several courts or wards for the accommodation of animals. In sickness they were attended with the greatest care, and here found a peaceful asylum for the infirmities of old age. When an animal broke a limb, or was otherwise disabled, his owner brought him to this hospital, where he was received without regard to the caste or nation of his master. In 1772, this hospital contained horses, mules, oxen, sheep, goats, monkies, poultry, pigeons, and a variety of birds; also an aged tortoise which was known to have been there 75 years. The most extraordinary ward was that appropriated for rats, mice, bugs, and other noxious vermin, for whom suitable food was provided.

Surat has long been a city of great commercial intercourse, although large ships cannot ascend the river, being obliged to cast anchor about 20 miles below the town. Neither can the harbour on the whole be reckoned commodious, although one of the best on this coast during the prevalence of the N. E. and

N. W. winds. With winds from the south and due west the anchorage is dangerous. The following tables of exports and imports for the years 1802 and 1815, will furnish a general idea of the nature, and comparative prosperity, of its commerce at two distinct periods since it became subject to the British empire. The weights at Surat are

40 seers make 1 maund = 1 quarter, 9 lbs.

20 maunds make 1 candy = 6 cwt. 2 quarters, 21 lbs. = 749 lbs. The weights, however, vary with different articles; and cotton, the grand staple commodity, is sold by the Surat candy of 21 maunds (about 786 lbs.)

COMMERCE OF SURAT FOR 1802-3.

1802 3.	IMPORTS TO SURAT.					EXPORTS FROM SURAT.				
	Vessels.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Vessels.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	No.	Tons.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Lisbon	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	1	600	5,301	,,	5,301
America	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
Bengal	,,	,,	793,738	,,	793,738	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
Malabar and Canara	2	133	30,881	,,	30,881	2	266	18,720	,,	18,720
Bombay	6	1,483	1,068,570	7,633	1,076,203	2	900	1,881,969	,,	1,881,969
Villages near Surat	,,	,,	197,651	,,	197,651	,,	,,	11,687	,,	11,687
Broach	,,	,,	404,355	,,	404,355	,,	,,	720,099	257,519	977,618
Cambay	,,	,,	167,469	,,	167,469	,,	,,	47,330	,,	47,330
Jumbosier	,,	,,	86,081	,,	86,081	,,	,,	33,770	,,	33,770
Bhownuggur	,,	,,	179,030	,,	179,030	,,	,,	158,473	,,	158,473
Ahmedabad and interior	,,	,,	743,089	,,	743,089	,,	,,	20,201	,,	20,201
Cashmere and Punjab	,,	,,	221	,,	221	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
Deccan	,,	,,	24,432	,,	24,432	,,	,,	39,254	,,	39,254
Jeypoor	,,	,,	30,212	,,	30,212	,,	,,	16,872	,,	16,872
Khandesh	,,	,,	99,338	,,	99,338	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
Arabian Gulf	4	1,040	83,142	1,072,148	1,155,290	11	1,855	1,318,808	,,	1,318,808
Persian Gulfs	14	1,695	78,828	15,947	94,775	5	641	404,255	,,	404,255
Penang and Eastward	,,	,,	31,902	7,036	38,938	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
Batavia	2	840	89,926	,,	89,926	1	440	65,482	,,	65,482
Bassein and Villages	,,	,,	50,745	,,	50,745	,,	,,	79,162	,,	79,162
Cutch and Sinde	2	48	14,575	,,	14,575	,,	,,	5,797	,,	5,797
Siam	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,	2	400	53,851	,,	53,851
Mozambique	2	185	154,461	3,710	158,171	2	152	155,017	,,	155,017
Isle of France	1	400	4,031	58,320	62,351	1	400	66,457	,,	66,457
TOTAL	33	5,824	4,332,677	1,164,794	5,497,471	27	5,654	5,102,505	257,519	5,360,024

COMMERCE OF SURAT FOR 1815-16.

1815-16.	IMPORTS TO SURAT.					EXPORTS FROM SURAT.				
	Vessels.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.	Vessels.		Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	No.	Tons.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	No.	Tons.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
Brazils	3	1,150	„	301,690	301,690	3	1,150	886,343	6,300	893,143
Malabar and Canara	„	„	5,192	„	5,192	„	„	10,552	17,763	28,315
Bombay	„	„	2,253,572	570,609	2,824,181	„	„	1,995,078	324,596	2,319,674
Broach	„	„	802,455	38,500	840,955	„	„	453,882	190,993	644,875
Cambay	„	„	68,489	„	68,489	„	„	51,910	425	52,335
Jumbosier	„	„	196,683	„	196,683	„	„	42,300	16,592	58,892
Bhownuggur	„	„	98,110	99,559	197,669	„	„	302,205	404,876	707,081
	„	„	1,165,737	138,059	1,303,796	„	„	850,297	612,886	1,463,183
Persian Gulf	14	805	29,117	29,450	58,567	10	627	299,406	6,300	305,706
Arabian Gulf	3	483	33,857	1,032,285	1,066,142	9	1,342	923,698	„	923,698
Bassein	„	„	411,506	„	411,506	„	„	25,759	18,350	44,109
Mozambique	6	665	259,678	65,789	325,467	6	665	177,096	„	177,096
Penang and eastward	1	300	„	67,495	67,495	„	„	„	„	„
Cutch and Sinde	„	„	7,864	„	7,864	„	„	2,990	1,300	4,290
TOTAL	28	3,520	4,166,523	2,205,377	6,371,900	28	3,784	5,171,719	987,495	6,159,214

This city is one of the most ancient of Hindostan, being mentioned in the Rámayuna, a Hindoo poem of great antiquity. After the discovery of the passage to the east by the Cape of Good Hope, it was much frequented by vessels belonging to all European nations, who exported from hence pearls, diamonds, ambergris, civet, musk, gold, silks, and cottons of every description, spices, fragrant woods, indigo, and saltpetre, and other objects of Indian traffic. From hence also great multitudes of pilgrims embarked for Arabia; on which account Surat was always considered by the Mahommedans of Hindostan as one of the gates of Mecca. In 1612, Captain Best received permission to settle an English factory at Surat, where he left ten persons with a stock of £4000 to purchase goods. The Dutch did not visit Surat until 1617. The French carried on a considerable, but losing trade with Surat, during the first years of the 18th century; and having contracted debts to the natives deserted it altogether. Some time afterwards, in 1714, a company was formed at St. Maloes, which dispatched ships to the East Indies, but these were seized and sequestered at Surat, to liquidate the debts of the former company, with which the St. Maloes association had no concern.

In January, 1664, the Mahratta army under Sevajee made a sudden attack on this city, when the governor shut himself up in the castle, and the inhabitants

fied to the adjacent country. In this emergency Sir George Oxinden, the chief, and the rest of the Company's servants, shut themselves up in the factory with the Company's property, valued at £80,000, and having fortified it as well as the shortness of the time would allow, called in the ships' crews to assist in the defence. When attacked they made so brave and vigorous a resistance, that they not only preserved the factory, but the greatest part of the town from destruction, for which, after the retreat of the enemy, they received the thanks of the Mogul commander. Surat was attacked and partially pillaged by the Maharattas in 1670, and afterwards in 1702. In April, 1707, it was again attacked by these freebooters, but having no cannon, and few fire-arms, they were unable to make any progress.

Moyen ud Deen, the ancestor of the present Nabob of Surat, was an adventurer who in 1748 possessed himself of Surat castle. His successors were in 1763, Cuttub ud Deen; in 1792, Nizam ud Deen; and in 1800, Nassir ud Deen; all invested by the East India Company. The existing system of internal government having been found inadequate to the protection of the persons and property of the inhabitants, on the 13th of May, 1800, a treaty was concluded with Nassir ud Deen, the reigning Nabob, by which he agreed that the management of the city and district of Surat, and the administration of civil and criminal justice, should be exclusively vested in the British government. The latter engaged to pay to the Nabob and his heirs one lack of rupees annually, and also a proportion (one-fifth) of the surplus annual revenue deducting all charges; for satisfaction in which respect, a vakeel on the part of the Nabob to have liberty to examine the accounts. The residue of the revenue to be at the disposal of the British government. By a subsequent treaty in 1803, the Maharattas were compelled to abandon all their vexatious claims on the city, which has ever since remained under the Bombay presidency, and been governed by the British regulations modified by peculiar local customs and circumstances.

Prior to this transfer the surrounding territory was much infested by predatory bands of armed thieves, who committed robberies close to the walls, and sometimes even in the streets of Surat. These violent outrages have been effectually suppressed. Burglaries, however, are still frequent in Surat, but if its extent and population be considered, and the careless manner in which the natives deposit, or rather expose their property, the number cannot be deemed surprising. The Mahy Kaunta Coolies are particularly ingenious house-breakers, and they were formerly much encouraged by a custom prevalent during the native governments, and practised by persons in the higher ranks of life, who actually sent to the banks of the Mahy for a party of these alert miscreants, for the express purpose of robbing the house of some neighbour, friend, or relation, in which, from

their intimacy with the family, they knew that money, ornaments, or costly goods were contained. On the arrival of this detachment of thieves near Surat, they were detained without, brought over the walls at night, and secreted in cellars until the occurrence of a favourable opportunity. When this arrived they were furnished with the necessary implements, and set to perpetrate the act, after the accomplishment of which they receive a small share of the plunder as a reward for the trouble they had taken.

The magistrates of this city have had reason to apprehend, that many individuals in it are destroyed by poison secretly administered, the perpetrators being stimulated either by jealousy or revenge; in some cases they are relations impatient to inherit property. The facility with which all sorts of poisonous drugs may be procured, and the ease with which they may be given, encourages the preference of this sort of murder among a people who are too timid to attempt more violent modes of assassination. The practice is consequently more prevalent among the Hindoos, while the Mahommedans and Parsees more frequently resort to open outrage. There are no regular coiners of base money at Surat, that article being imported ready made from Bhownuggur, where there is a mint established for the purpose. Assaults and woundings are not frequent, as all armed persons are stopped at the gates, and obliged to deposit all offensive weapons with the gate-keeper. Drunkenness is very prevalent, owing to the cheapness of intoxicating liquors, and the facility with which they may be had.

In 1813, the town and district of Surat were greatly infested by emigrants from Cutch and Malwah, an idle and uncivilized race, by long habit addicted to thieving and the commission of every crime. It was supposed also that these persons introduced the small pox of a virulent description, which carried off many of the inhabitants. The Parsees and higher classes of Hindoos objected to vaccination as injuring the purity of their caste; the latter particularly objecting to having their children innoculated with matter taken from a Mahommedan or Parsee. In the same year many thousands were carried off by a pestilential disease of the febrile kind, but the remaining population of Surat is still enormous, although its trade has unavoidably suffered from the proximity of Bombay. In 1796, one estimate raised the total population so high as 800,000 souls, while another reduced it to 600,000, which probably considerably exceeds the actual number. In 1807, this city contained 1200 Parsees of the Mobid, or sacerdotal class; and about 12,000 of the laity, or Behdeen Parsees. It is rather surprising that no approximation has yet been made towards an accurate enumeration of the inhabitants. In 1816, the Bombay presidency in their dispatches to the court of directors describe it as more than double that of Bombay, and

probably five times greater than that of the Broach jurisdiction, without stating what these are. In 1815, the senior judge of circuit was disposed to attribute the unfavourable state of morals at Surat, to the influence and authority of the heads of castes having been much reduced, and the respect formerly shewn by the lower orders to the higher having been nearly destroyed by the general operation of the British regulations. In consequence of this laxity, numberless petty immoralities, trifling vices and increasing drunkenness occurred, not only among the men, but more especially among the women, these irregularities not being cognizable by the British tribunals when unaccompanied by breaches of the peace; yet these infractions of their own discipline lead ultimately to the perpetration of greater crimes.

Travelling distance from Bombay, 177 miles; from Poona, 243; from Oojein, 309; from Delhi, 756; and from Calcutta, by Nagpoor, 1238 miles.—*(Bourchier, Prendergast, Parliamentary Reports, Bruce, Treaties, Morrison, Sonnerat, Anquetil, &c. &c. &c.)*

SWALLY *(Sivalaya, the abode of Siva)*.—This is the harbour of the Surat shipping, and is situated at the mouth of the river Tuptee, 20 miles W. from that city. Lat. 21° 6′ N. long. 72° 50′ E.

DOMUS.—A town in the Gujerat province, 15 miles S. W. from the city of Surat. Lat. 21° 4′ N. long. 72° 53′ E.

MANDOWEE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 19 miles E. from Surat. Lat. 21° 15′ N. long. 73° 25′ E.

BULSAUR.—A large and populous sea-port on the high road to Bombay, 45 miles S. by W. from Surat. Lat. 20° 36′ N. long. 73° 5′ E. A considerable trade is carried on from Bulsaur in grain, jaggree and timber. The manufactures consist mostly of coarse dooties, baftaes, and ginghams. The principal produce of the pergunnah is rice and sugar cane, yet, although the fields are in general well cultivated, there still remains a considerable proportion of waste and unoccupied land.—*(Morrison, &c.)*

SACHEEN.—The estate of Sacheen, otherwise Satragaum, situated in the Chourasse pergunnah, was granted in perpetuity by the Peshwa in the year 1791 to Siddee Abdul Kurreem Khan, commonly stiled Balloo Meah, in exchange for the forts of Gingera, Dunda Rajpoor, Cansan, and Mudgur, with their dependencies, situated in the Concan, which formed the hereditary principality of the Abyssinian family of the Siddees. The town of Sacheen stands in lat. 21° 4′ N. long. 73° 5′ E. and some parts of the estate reach within two miles of Surat. This territority is entirely independent both of the Poona government and the British, the civil and police authority being administered by the Nabob, or by persons delegated by him, who are, however, bound to abide by the ancient

agricultural and revenue system of the country. In settling ancient usages the agency of heads of castes, and punchaits, or native juries, are usefully employed by him, and in fiscal matters that of patells and other hereditary revenue officers. His income amounts when clear to about 75,000 rupees per annum, but is usually greatly involved. In 1816, a negotiation was undertaken by the Bombay presidency, to induce him to allow the British government to exercise police and criminal jurisdiction within his estate, but it failed of success. *(Prendergast, Public MS. Documents, &c.)*

CURRODE.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Gujerat, which, in 1817, were valued at 65,000 rupees per annum, at which estimate they were received from the Guicowar in exchange for Beejapoor. Lat. 21° 12′ N. long. 73° 25′ E. 18 miles from the city of Surat.

VEESARAREE.—A town in the Gujerat province, 22 miles N. E. from Surat. Lat. 21° 25′ N. long. 73° 23′ E.

SOONGHUR.—A town in the Gujerat province, 30 miles E. from Surat. Lat. 21° 10′ N. long. 73° 37′ E.

NOAPOORA.—A town in the Gujerat province, 45 miles E. from Surat. Lat. 21° 10′ N. long. 73° 51′ E. In 1818, this fortress surrendered to a detachment under Major Kennet, and was found so eligibly situated that it was made a depot of supply for the armies serving to the north of Bombay.—*(Public Journals, &c.)*

ATTAVEESEE.—A large territory in the southern extremity of the Gujerat province, situated between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude, and bounded on the west by the sea and the district of Surat. It is intersected by many streams flowing from the eastern hills, but not by any river of magnitude. The principal towns are Damaun, Dhurrumpoor, and Baunsda. In 1802, Anund Row Guicowar, to defray the expenses incurred by the British government in the war against his rival Mulhar Row, mortgaged this district, which then yielded an annual revenue of six lacks and a half of rupees.

DAMAUN.—A sea-port town of some note, situated in lat. 20° 25′ N. long. 72° 58′ E. about 100 miles N. from Bombay. The Portugueze reduced this place so early as 1531, and it still remains in their possession. It makes a conspicuous figure from the sea, the churches and houses being in general white; but the commerce is now much diminished. The anchorage is in eight fathoms, three miles off shore, but the river affords a secure harbour for small vessels, and in spring tides, during the S. W. monsoon, has from 18 to 20 feet water over the bar. The building of ships has long been the principal source of profit here, the teak forests being at no great distance. The builder in 1818 was a Hindoo, who constructed all his ships after the same model, which was too short for the breadth, thereby rendering them uneasy in a head sea. On the other hand it is

admitted that they wear well, carry a good cargo, and before the wind sail most furiously. Since A. D. 1790, 30 ships, exceeding 400 tons burthen each, have been built here.—*(Elmore, Public Journals, Malet, Bruce, &c. &c.)*

OONAEE.—A small village in the province of Gujerat, belonging to the Guicowar, situated 50 miles S. E. from Surat. At this place there is a hot well, which, like all other extraordinary phenomena of nature, is held sacred by the Hindoos, and resorted to by pilgrims of that religion, who are supplied by the officiating priest with the miraculous history of its original formation by Rama Chandra.—*(Drummond, &c.)*

THE PROVINCE OF MALWAH.

(MALAVA.)

A LARGE province of Hindostan, situated principally between the 22d and 25th degrees of north latitude. To the north it is bounded by Ajmeer and Agra; on the south by Khandesh and Berar; to the east it has Allahabad and Gundwana; and on the west Ajmeer and Gujerat. In length it may be estimated at 220 miles, by 150 the average breadth. By Abul Fazel in 1582, this province is described as follows:—

"The soubah of Malwah is situated in the second climate. The length, from Currah to Banswarreh, comprises 245 coss; and the breadth from Chandery to Nudderbar includes 230 coss. It is bounded on the east by Baundhoo; on the north by Narwar and the mountains; on the south by Boglaneh (Baglana); and on the west by Gujerat and Ajmeer. The rivers Nerbuddah, Soopra, Calysind, Neem and Lowdy, flow through this soubah. The situation of this soubah, compared with other parts of Hindostan, is high. Both harvests are very good. Wheat, poppies, mangoes, musk melons, and grapes, are here in high perfection. This soubah is divided into the following districts, viz.—1. Oojein; 2. Roysain; 3. Gurrah; 4. Chendary; 5. Sarangpoor; 6. Beejagur; 7. Mendow; 8. Hindia; 9. Nuzerbar; 10. Merusoor; 11. Gayroon; 12 Kowtree Beraneh. These districts are subdivided into 301 pergunnahs, and contain 280,816 cavalry; 68,000 infantry; and 90 elephants."

From the above delineation it appears, that when the institutes of Acber were composed, the province of Malwah extended to the south of the Nerbudda, and an angle touched on Baglana, on the south-west, and Berar on the south-east. The rest of the southern boundary was formed by the course of the Nerbudda; but it is difficult to reconcile this arrangement with the position assigned to the province of Khandesh. In more recent times, the Nerbudda has been generally considered as its distinguishing southern boundary, on crossing which, the Deccan commences. Towards the north-west, Malwah is separated from the district of Harrowty in Ajmeer, by a ridge of mountains stretching east and west, near the village of Muckundra. Lat. 24° 48′ N. long. 76° 12′ E.

This is a central region and of considerable elevation; but with a regular descent from the Vindhya mountains, that extend along the north-side of the Nerbudda, as is proved by the numerous streams which have their sources in that quarter, whence they flow nearly due north until they join the Chumbul, and ultimately the Jumna and Ganges. Although higher than the adjacent provinces, it surpasses them in fertility, the soil being a black vegetable mould, producing cotton, opium, indigo, tobacco, and grain in large quantities, besides furnishing pasture for numerous herds of cattle. The harvest in this province, as in Hindostan generally, is divided into two periods, the one being cut in September and October, and the other in March and April. Rice is cultivated only in a few detached spots which lie convenient for water; but the quantity is so small that it can hardly be reckoned among the crops. Barley is not cultivated, the soil being unfavorable to that species of grain. From its elevation, this territory enjoys a temperature of climate, favourable towards the productions of many species of fruits which are destroyed by the heat of the lower provinces. To the north-west of Oojein many parts are well adapted for the movements of cavalry, and horse artillery, several plains being there seen, extending 30 miles in every direction, and but little broken up by ravines or water-courses. None of the rivers of Malwah are navigable, although some of them have a remarkable length of course. The sources of the Chumbul and the Mahy are among the Vindhyan hills on the northern banks of the Nerbudda, and rise at no great distance from each other; yet the waters of the one ultimately fall into the bay of Bengal, while those of the other have their outlet in the gulf of Cambay. The principal modern territorial subdivisions are the following:—

1. Cutchwara.	4. Mundessor.	7. Sarangpoor.
2. Chanderee.	5. Oojein.	8. Bopaul.
3. Omudwara.	6. Mandoo.	9. Raisseen.

The towns of most note are Oojein, Indore, Bopal, Bilsah, Seronge, Mundessor, Burseah and Mundoo; and the province in general may be considered as the cradle of the Pindaries. The largest rivers are the Nerbudda, Chumbul, Betwa, Sinde, Sepra, Cane, and Parbutty. There does not appear to be any dialect peculiar to this province, as in a specimen of the Lord's Prayer in what is called the Malwah language, the missionaries could trace twenty words as occurring in the Bengalese and Hindostany examples, while many of the remainder were found to be words of pure Sanscrit.

This being an inland province, and without navigable rivers, the whole commerce is conducted by land-carriage. The principal articles of export are, cottons, which are sent in large quantities to Gujerat, and to Mirzapoor on the

Ganges, whence they are forwarded to Calcutta; coarse, stained and printed cloths; the root of the morinda citrifolia, and opium. The drug last mentioned is cultivated in Malwah to a great extent, and exported to the adjacent provinces, especially to Gujerat and Cattywar, from whence it is smuggled to the eastward. From this province it is generally transported in baskets, containing ten seers, each seer weighing 40 rupees, after undergoing adulteration by having a moiety or more of flour mixed with the fresh juice. The price of genuine opium in Malwah is said to be only four or five rupees; but after it gets into the hands of the retail merchants in Gujerat, it is again adulterated with various ingredients before it is sold to the consumer. During the transit to Gujerat, the article is subject to very heavy road duties; yet the merchants who dealt in this contraband were formerly numerous at Broach, Surat, and even Bombay, from all of which they exported the commodity to Cattywar, Arabia and Persia. Formerly two kinds of opium were brought to Surat, the one from Malwah, and the other from the ports of the Red Sea, the produce of Upper Egypt. The price of the first was $4\frac{3}{16}$ and of the last $7\frac{3}{16}$ rupees, for the heavy seer. The Malwah drug was re-exported to Bhownuggur, Diu, Cutch, Prince of Wales island, the Malay coast, China, and even back again to particular parts of Malwah, at $5\frac{1}{4}$ rupees per heavy seer; the Egyptian (nearly the whole of which went to Mooltan) at eight rupees per heavy seer. On account of its cheapness, Gujerat, Cutch, and Cattywar, are still supplied with opium from Malwah; that disposed of at the Government sales in Calcutta, being so high as eleven rupees per seer. The Malwah tobacco, particularly that of the Bilsah district, is beyond all comparison the best in India, and much sought after by the votaries of the hookah. It is surprising that the eager demand and high price have never influenced the natives to increase the cultivation materially; but they prefer substituting tobacco of a different growth, and asserting that it is the genuine Bilsah, relying on the ignorance and want of taste of their customers.

This province was invaded early in the 13th century, by the Patan sovereigns of Delhi, and was either wholly subdued or rendered tributary. Its subjection to that empire continued very precarious until the 14th and 15th centuries, during which period it was governed by independent sovereigns of the Patan or Afghan race, whose capital was Mandow (Mundoo), situated among the Vindhya mountains. After the conquest of Delhi, by the Mogul dynasty, Malwah was soon subdued, and continued to form a province of that empire until the death of Aurengzebe, in 1707, when it was invaded and overrun by the Maharattas, and finally separated from the Mogul dominions about the year 1732, during the reign of Sahoo Raja, whose tribe and successors have ever

since been predominant in it. The ancient landholders, however, who were deprived of their possession by the Maharattas, still retained some forts dispersed over the country, and partly by treaty, partly by force, received a portion of the rents from the neighbouring villages; these people are here, as in Gujerat, known by the name of Grassias; and in 1790, during the life-time of Madhajee Sindia, one of them possessed a mud fort within ten miles of Oojein. Beside these regular exactions, the Grassias have always been noted as free-booters, when any confusion of affairs, or distress of government, weakened the military coercion of the native police. In addition to this class, a great number of petty chiefs held hereditary possession of certain portions of country, for which they pay revenue to the superior Maharatta leaders, and while this part of their engagement is performed, are little interfered with in the internal management of their territories. Each of these chieftains possesses one or more strong holds, with which the province abounds; their subjugation, therefore, when refractory, is attended with considerable difficulty and expense, and they frequently make it a point of honour to withhold their revenue until the payment is compelled by an adequate force.

In the southern division of Malwah, the savage tribe of Bheels are found in considerable numbers, especially among the mountains contiguous to the Nerbudda and Tuptee rivers, where their chiefs are in possession of all the principal passes. These are a jungle people, and by some supposed to have been the aborigines of central Hindostan, extending west to Gujerat, where they meet the Coolies, and east to Gundwana, where they come in contact with the Gonds; but the points of difference which distinguish these tribes from each other respectively, and collectively from the lower classes of Hindoos, have never been accurately ascertained. The Bheels inhabit the interior, where they subsist on the produce of a very scanty cultivation, being generally averse to agriculture, and on what they can procure by hunting and thieving; the Coolies are found mostly on or near the sea-coast, where, until lately, they employed themselves in fishing and piracy. Their common points of resemblance seem to be an aversion to regular industry, and a proneness to predatory rapine, at which they are particularly expert, and were in consequence frequently employed by the native chiefs to desolate the territories of their adversaries. Some of them have recently got mounted, and serve as cavalry; but a great proportion are infantry, nearly in a state of nakedness, and armed with bows and arrows. In religion they are Hindoos of the Brahminical persuasion; but in feeding addicted to many impure practices, the sacred order having never been at any pains to instruct them on the subject.

Owing to the total dissolution of all regular government throughout this part of India, the Bheels were evidently advancing in political strength, and would have soon emerged into notice as a substantive power, having acquired, from their roving and predatory habits, an ascendancy over several petty native states in their vicinity, such as that of Rajpepla, where, taking advantage of internal dissensions they had nearly reduced the country to the condition of a desert. In 1818, Mundroot Singh, and other predatory chiefs who had strong holds on the Nerbudda, and who had for many years rendered the territories in their vicinity uninhabitable, attended Sir John Malcolm on his last march southward to protect the country they had so long plundered. On that occasion, the principal Bheel leaders, who occupied the mountains, solicited and were promised friendship, and also a fair consideration of their claims which are very moderate, and have been for more than a century admitted by all the dominant governments of central Hindostan. The more immediate results of these arrangements were, that above 100 villages between the Satpoorah range and Indore, most of which had been abandoned for years, were repeopled, the peasant being enabled once more to cultivate his field in security.

In 1818, after the Pindary war had been brought to a successful conclusion, an insurrection was organized in the south-western portion of Malwah, under a boy impostor named Krishna, who, for the occasion, was made to personate the reigning and legitimate Raja, Mulhar Row Holcar. The country chosen by the insurgents for their operations is the strongest and most inaccessible in this quarter of Malwah, consisting of the deep line of hills and jungles, which extend north and south from Pertaubghur, passing Rutlam within eight or ten miles, and stretching onwards by Petlawud, Boree, Baug, and Cooksee, to near the Nerbudda, and continuing west to a great distance, through the territories of Banswarah, Doongurpoor, Koshalghur, Bareah, and Chota Odeypoor. From the country of Mewar, to the north and west of Pertaubghur, the insurgents could not look for support, except from one or two predatory chiefs; but the tracts above enumerated teemed with the elements of insurrection, besides the Bheels, Moghees, and a number of Soandies, who had been driven into the jungles by the successful operations in Soandwarah, and lastly, numerous bodies of Arabs and Mekranies (from Meckran in Persia) were scattered over the country. Those at Banswarah had joined the impostor, a party were at Rutlam, another at Jabooah, a third at Amjerah, while a force of 7 or 800 under Muzaffer, a Mekrany chief, were in possession of Cooksee, Chickulda, and Ally Mohun. The whole of these Arabs and Mekranies kept up a regular communication, and, from interested motives, felt a natural antipathy to the tranquillizing system, it being obviously incompatible with the duration of their

ascendancy over the petty native states. The leaders of the insurgents naturally calculated on assistance, in some shape, from the discontented mercenaries, who trusted for pay to chance and plunder; but their plots and combinations were completely frustrated by the energy and activity of the officers and troops employed against them. In their first movements, the rebels were confined to the hills, next pursued amidst their fastnesses, then cut off from mutual succour by the intervention of detachments where least expected, and in the end totally routed and dispersed. The impostor escaped for the moment, but every one of his principal adherents were taken, and his cause at last utterly abandoned.

During these proceedings, the contrast of past misery with the consciousness of present safety was felt by all; and the fervour of their gratitude to the British government was enhanced by the obviously disinterested character of its interference, so far as pecuniary profit was concerned. The grand result contemplated, was the establishing and maintaining the peace of India, and this object, Sir John Malcolm personally explained to all ranks; to the head of a village as well as to the sovereign of a kingdom; to the leader of a gang of robbers as well as to the commander of an army. But the feelings that had been excited in all classes, (not excepting the military,) by their preying on each other until the means of subsistence, even to the strongest, were exhausted, could not be expected to last long; advantage was in consequence taken of existing circumstances, and troops distributed in such a manner, that while they precluded the foreign mercenaries from tumult or violence, proved to them that any act of conciliation or liberality was not the offspring of fear or necessity.

The general result of these and other arrangements, effected by Sir John Malcolm, was the expulsion of nearly 4000 Sindies and Mekranies, and 2000 of Bapoo Sindia's Mewatties and Patans; the restoration to power and security of the rulers of the different petty states; the establishment of the just claims of Sindia, Holcar, and the Powar family; and, finally, the restoration to their houses and homes of a multitude of the peaceable and industrious classes—the whole accomplished without bloodshed. The discharged mercenaries were treated with kindness, and all the petty chieftains were warned, that the re-entertaining of them would be considered tantamount to a declaration of hostility against the British government. On the other hand, the reform of the Grassia, Rajpoot, and Bheel freebooters, was not, when properly managed, so difficult a task as had been anticipated. Accustomed to oppression and contempt as these tribes had been, whenever the government to which they owed allegiance was strong enough to despise them, they were gratified by the kindness and consideration shewn them by a power whose superior means of coercion were irresistible. Although reduced in some respects, their condition in others

was raised, and they were particularly pleased, during the negotiation, by the absence of all suspicion of meditated treachery, a mark of infamy that had hitherto attached to the most favoured of their race. To inspire them with some confidence in their own honesty, Sir John Malcolm employed the most notorious of these freebooters near his person, and as guards over property and treasure, which duties they invariably fulfilled with care and fidelity.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Hunter, Rennell, Scott, Marquis Wellesley, &c. &c. &c.)*

BETWA RIVER *(Vetava.)*—This river, from its source near Bopal to its confluence with the Jumna below Calpee, describes a course of 340 miles in a north-easterly direction. By the natives it is reckoned highly salubrious, although in part of its journey it appears to run through beds of iron ore. Near Erech it presents, in November, a serpentine stream of clear water passing vast ravines on one side, with cultivated fields and a broken chain of hills. A ledge of rocks originating from these hills crosses the river, forming a barrier; and 200 yards further on, a reef of rocks is seen above the surface of the water, over which the stream rushes with a roaring noise. Near the town of Barwah, in the month of March, the channel is about three furlongs broad, sandy, and full of round stones; but the water only knee deep. During the rains it swells to such a height as not to be fordable.—*(Public Journals, Hunter, &c. &c.)*

CUTCHWARA *(Cach'chwara.)*—A large district in the province of Malwa, but not enumerated under this appellation in the Ayeen Acberry. It principally occupies the north-western quarter, and is intersected by the Cali Sinde, the Parbutty, the Neemuj, and Koharry rivers, none of which are navigable, even during the height of the rains. The principal towns are Shahabad, Kailwarra, and Gagroon.

MUCKUNDRA.—A village in the province of Malwah, situate about 28 miles S. S. E. from Kotah, lat. 24° 50′ N. long. 75° 55′ E. This place stands in a valley, nearly circular, about three-fourths of a mile in diameter, surrounded by very steep hills, and only accessible by an opening to the south, and another to the north, each of which is defended by a stone wall and a gate. This is the only pass within many miles through a ridge of mountains, which extends to the east and west, separating the province of Malwah from the district called Harowty, or country of the tribe Hara in Ajmeer. At Chunkairee, 14 miles to the eastward, a great fair for horses and cattle is held.

GAGROON.—A town in the Malwah province, 49 miles S. E. from Kotah. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 76° 12′ E.

SUCKUTPOOR.—A town in the Malwah province, 54 miles E. S. E. from Kotah. Lat. 76° 31′ N. long. 24° 52′ E.

BRODAH.—A town in the province of Malwah, 65 miles E. N. E. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 32′ N. long. 76° 44′ E.

KAILWARA.—A town in the Malwah province, 66 miles E. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 14′ N. long. 76° 47′ E.

NHAURGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwah, 54 miles E. by S. from Kotah. Lat. 25° 9′ N. long. 76° 36′ E.

CHANDEREE *(Chandri)*.—A large district in the province of Malwah, of which it occupies the north-western extremity, and by Abul Fazel, in 1582, described as follows:—"Circar Chendary, containing 61 mahals, measurement 554,277 begahs; revenue 31,037,783 dams; seyurghal 29,931 dams. This circar furnishes 5970 cavalry, 90 elephants, and 60,685 infantry." Although of a mountainous surface, this district is very productive when under proper cultivation; the soil of this portion of Malwah being described by travellers as of superior fertility, and it is intersected by many streams, such as the Betwa and Sinde, which serve to irrigate the land, but are not navigable even for small boats. The principal towns are Chanderee, Seronge, Khemlasa, Maltown, and Ragooghur.

CHANDEREE.—This is a very ancient town, being described by Abul Fazel as containing 14,000 stone houses, but like many other cities of Hindostan, it now exhibits a mixture of houses and population scattered among ruins. Lat. 24° 32′ N. long. 78° 10′ E. 48 miles N. N. E. from Seronge. It is said, that for above 300 years the Raja of Chanderee's family have enjoyed their present dominions. In 1790, Ram Chund lived in retirement in the province of Oude, having left his district under the administration of his son, who paid tribute to the Maharattas, by whom the country was little molested until 1812, when it was attacked by Dowlet Row Sindia and the existing Raja, Murdin Singh, compelled to pay additional contributions.—*(Abul Fazel, Hunter, Richardson, &c.)*

RAGOOGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwah, 36 miles N. W. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 23′ N. long. 77° 12′ E. This place belonged to Raja Jeysingh, a feudatory of Sindia, who sent his commander Baptiste to capture it, which he did, after a considerable resistance; but during the siege, Jeysingh surprised Baptiste's own fort of Sheopoor, which cost him a great deal of trouble to recover. Jeysingh has ever since led a refractory and predatory life, Sindia being utterly unable with his own forces to suppress him.

KOLLABAUG.—A town in the Malwah province, 55 miles N. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 51′ N. long. 77° 30′ E.

CHUPPRA.—A town in the Malwah province, 68 miles N. W. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 39′ N. long. 76° 49′ E.

BHEEHUT.—A town in the province of Malwah, 38 miles S. by W. from Jhansi. Lat. 25° 4′ N. long. 78° 15′ E.

TOOMOON.—A small town in the province of Malwah, 84 miles W. from Chat-

terpoor. Lat. 25° 8′ N. long. 78° 35′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—"Toomar is a town situated on the banks of the river Betwah, in which are seen mermaids. Here is an idolatrous temple in which if you beat a drum it makes no noise."

MOGUL SERAY.—As this place is approached from Seronge, the elevation increases, and the ghauts are ascended, so that in one day's march a country is reached 800 feet higher than in the morning, the whole of the adjacent surface being considerably elevated above that of Bundelcund. Lat. 24° 17′ N., long. 77° 37′ E.

GOPAULGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwah, 13 miles N. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 15′ N. long. 77° 43′ E.

SERONGE.—This is a large open town, which from its size and population may be denominated a city. Lat. 24° 5′ N. long. 77° 41′ E. The country for many miles to the south of Seronge is an open plain, and the country generally is of a superior description, and the climate, on account of its elevation, more temperate than the latitude would indicate. During the cold season, the thermometer is frequently seen under the freezing point, when natural ice is formed in the shallow pools, but is speedily dissolved after sun-rise. The appearance of Seronge indicates a prior state of prosperity, and a greater population than it at present possesses, although its condition is much superior to what might have been expected from the incessant ravages that it has undergone, and from having been in fact, for many years, under a Pindary government, that of Ameer Khan, to whom it was ceded by Holkar, and with the district attached, in 1804, yielded him five lacks of rupees annually. The bazars are strong, and are built of stone, on an elevation of four feet above the street. A large caravanserai still remains, having a double row of pillars and walled all round. Coarse cloths are manufactured here, and are remarkably cheap. In 1809, the British army, when in pursuit of Ameer Khan, took possession of Seronge, but only proceeded five miles further north, it being found impossible to overtake him. This (formerly predatory) chief still holds Seronge in Malwah, and Tonk on the Banass river, which may be considered his two principal possessions; but there is scarcely a division of Rajpootana or of the country east of the Chumbul, in which he has not some fort, assignment of land, or pending claim. The removal of all his thanas, or military posts, was the first result of the British treaties with Jeypoor and Joudpoor; but he still holds some places anteriorly obtained from those Rajas by Holcar, and subsequently assigned to him, his engagement with the British government securing to him all the lands which he held in grant from Holcar, his former master, although it deprived him of the fruits of his own predatory career Travelling distance from Oojein 165 miles N. E.; from Agra 253; from Benares

389; from Bombay 595; from Calcutta by Benares 849; and from Nagpoor 295 miles.—*(12th Register, Prinsep, Rennell, Heyne, &c. &c.)*

KOORWEY.—Koorwey and Borasso are two towns almost united, and are of considerable size, the first having a large stone fort. They are inhabited by Patans, who settled here during the reign of Aurengzebe. In 1790, the Raja's revenue was between one and two lacks of rupees, but it was sequestered by the Maharattas for a debt due to them.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

KHEMLASA.—A large walled town with a fort adjoining, 37 miles E. by N. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 14′ N. long. 78° 25′ E. In 1790, this place was attached to the town of Saugur, distant about 37 miles to the southward.

RUNNODE.—A town in the province of Malwah, 75 miles N. from Seronge. Lat. 25° 6′ N. long. 77° 10′ E.

SENWAHO.—A town in the province of Malwah, 73 miles N. E. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 31′ N. long. 78° 48′ E.

MOHUNPOOR.—A town in the province of Malwah, 49 miles N. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 47′ N. long. 77° 36′ E.

MUNGROWLEE.—A town in the Malwah province, 31 miles N. E. from Seronge. Lat. 24° 24′ N. long. 77° E.

BASSOUDA.—A large walled town in the province of Malwah, 24 miles S. E. from Seronge. Lat. 23° 53′ N. long. 78° E. The soil in this neighbourhood is alternately a black mould and a reddish clay, with stones of a ferruginous appearance. In 1790, Bassouda belonged to the Bilsah district, and was tributary to the Maharattas; and in 1817, it was a noted haunt, where a considerable body of Pindaries usually rendezvoused.—*(Hunter, &c. &c.)*

OMUDWARA *(Umadwara)*.—A small district in the province of Malwah, of which it occupies the centre, and is bounded by the Cali Sinde, and Parbutty rivers. The principal towns are Chaunchra, Rajghur, and Cujneer.

CHAUNCHRA.—A town in the Malwah province, 42 miles west from Seronge. Lat. 24° 8′ N. long. 77° 3′ E.

SOOMEER.—A town of considerable size, in the province of Malwah, 58 miles N. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 59′ N. long. 76° 8′ E. In this neighbourhood the soil is of a rusty iron colour, and but little cultivated.

MUNDESSOR.—A large district in the province of Malwah, situated towards the western extremity, and intersected by the Chumbul river. The principal towns are Mundessor, Parkundy, and Hinglaisghur. The town of Mundessor is situated in lat. 24° 6′ N. long. 75° 8′ E. 80 miles N. W. from Oojein. The interior is at present in a very ruinous condition, but the walls and gateways are still good. The fort is a square of nearly 120 yards, and sufficiently elevated to command the country. Within it is a well of good water. At this town the last treaty with the Holkar family was concluded.—*(Public Journals, &c. &c.)*

GUNGRAUR.—A town in the Malwah province, 56 miles N. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 58′ N. long. 75° 40′ E.

PARKUNDY *(Parakhandi).*—A town in the Malwah province, 75 miles N. by W. from Oojein. Lat. 24° 8′ N. long. 75° 26′ E.

RUTLAM.—A town in the province of Malwah, the capital of a small independent rajaship, situated on the western frontier of the province towards Gujerat. Lat. 23° 24′ N. long. 75° 5′ E. 52 miles W. N. W. from Oojein. The adjacent country is of a very wild description from Banswara to this place, being almost one continued jungle; and from Manoorah to Pertaubghur, wholly so, the few inhabitants being principally of the Bheel tribe. The mercenary Arabs in their service had long been a pestilence to the petty Rajas of Doongurpoor, Pertaubghur, Banswara, and Rutlam; but in 1818, arrangements were concluded under the direction of Sir John Malcolm, which relieved them from the tyranny of their own servants.

TAUNDLA.—A town in the Malwah province, 80 miles W. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 4′ N. long. 74° 38′ E.

PETLAWAD.—A town in the Malwah province, 65 miles west from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 5′ N. long. 74° 52′ E.

RAJODE.—A town in the Malwah province, 46 miles W. by S. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 3′ N. long. 75° 9′ E.

HINGLAISGHUR.—This fortress is surrounded by a deep natural ravine, 250 feet in length and 200 in breadth, the sides perpendicular; on the inner of which the walls of the fort are built. There are also three made causeways leading to the gates. Hinglaisghur has been in the possession of the Holcar family since about the middle of the 18th century, and by the natives is considered one of the strongest castles in their dominions; yet, on the 2d of July, 1804, it was carried by assault with little loss, by the detachment under Colonel Monson, during the campaign against Jeswunt Row Holcar. Lat. 24° 28′ N. long. 75° 48′ E. 90 miles north from Oojein.

SOONEL.—A town in the Malwah province, 80 miles N. from Oojein. Lat. 24° 23′ N. long. 75° 56′ E. This is a place of considerable extent, and of a square form, having two broad streets that cross each other at right angles in the middle of the town.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

BAMPOORA.—A town in the province of Malwah, 43 miles south from Kotah. Lat. 24° 37′ N. long. 75° 33′ E.

MAHEIDPOOR.—A village in the province of Malwah, situated on the banks of the Seppra river, 24 miles north from Oojein. On the 17th of December, 1817, the army nominally belonging to Mulhar Row Holcar, but in reality commanded by Ghuffoor Khan, and other refractory Patan chiefs, was totally routed

by the British forces under Sir Thomas Hislop, with the loss of all their artillery (63 pieces), eight elephants, and between 200 and 300 camels. The British casualties in this battle were very severe, amounting to 174 killed and 604 wounded. Among the former were three officers, Lieutenants Macleod, Coleman, and Glen: among the latter no less than 35, of whom 8 belonged to the rifle corps, which alone lost 130 killed and wounded. This slaughter was occasioned by Holcar's artillery, which was admirably served by his artillerymen, most of whom were bayoneted at their guns. But few prisoners were made in the battle, but many in the hot pursuit that ensued, by the cavalry and Mysore horse, under Sir John Malcolm.—*(Public Documents, Printed & MS. &c.)*

SOANDWARA.—A wild tract in the province of Malwah, which stretches from Auggur to the Chumbul, east and west, and from near Bampoora to Oojein, north and south. In 1818, the inhabitants consisted mostly of bands of hereditary plunderers, who having been expelled from their lands by the Maharattas, had taken shelter among the forests, ravines, and mountains of Malwah, from whence by their inroads, they had for more than half a century disturbed the peace of the whole province. Even after its conquest by the British, the natural difficulties of the country encouraged the Soandies to persevere in their predatory habits, but as the entire suppression of every tendency to violence was absolutely essential to the establishment of the new system, it became necessary to coerce them effectually. When Sir John Malcolm undertook the settlement of this distracted territory, it was in concert with our native allies, the Kotah Raja, Sindia, Holcar, and others, who were extremely anxious that the British army should become the instrument of extirpating a tribe, which they pronounced as incorrigible, and certainly they were so, while pursued as they had been with fire and sword for half a century. A considerable force penetrated into the country in March, 1818, and the various attacks upon the Soandies who refused to submit were completely successful. In the space of six weeks, 13 strong holds were taken, and five of them razed to the ground. The freebooters being in this manner expelled from their fastnesses, sought safety by flying to a distance, but wherever they went they found themselves proscribed as enemies to the British government, and to protect them was to provoke its vengeance. This produced such misery, that they came in one after another, giving up their arms and horses according to the terms offered them; in return for which they were encouraged to cultivate the fields they had so long desolated. In this enterprize, the troops of Zalim Singh, of Kotah, commanded by Meerab Khan, co-operated with much spirit; and in one instance met with so desperate a resistance in carrying the village of Narreilla by storm, that they

lost about 200 killed and wounded on the spot.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Prinsep, &c. &c.)*

ONEIL.—A town in the Malwah province, 18 miles N. N. W. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 21′ N. long. 75° 35′ E.

OOJEIN *(Ujjayini)*.—A district in the province of Malwah, situated towards the south-western extremity, and containing the capitals of both the Sindia and Holcar families. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows:—"Circar Oojein, containing 10 Mahals; measurement 925,622 begahs; revenue 43,827,960 dams. This circar furnishes 3250 cavalry and 11,170 infantry."

The soil in the vicinity of the city of Oojein, and over the greatest part of the Malwah province, is a black vegetable mould, which in the rainy season becomes so soft, that travelling is hardly practicable. In drying, it cracks in all directions, and the fissures are so wide and deep by the road side, as to make a journey dangerous. The quantity of rain that falls in ordinary seasons is so considerable, and the ground so retentive of moisture, that wells are little used for watering the fields; but this makes the suffering more severe, if the periodical rains fail, there being no wells ready to supply the deficiency. It is singular that the vine in this tract produces a second crop of grapes in the rainy season, but they are acidulous, and of an inferior quality. The other fruits are the mangoe, guava, plantain, melon, and several varieties of the orange and lime trees. In the villages near the city of Oojein, the houses are built entirely of mud, the roofs, walls, and floors being all of that composition, which the inhabitants assert resists the heaviest rains. In 1790, the district immediately dependent on Oojein yielded a revenue of five lacks of rupees per annum, and comprehended 175 villages.—*(Hunter, &c. &c.)*

OOJEIN.—A city of great celebrity in the Malwah province, and the modern capital of the dominions subject to the Sindia Maharattas. Lat. 23° 11′ N. long. 75° 52′ E. By Abul Fazel, in 1582, it is described as follows: "Oojein is a large city on the banks of the Sopra, and held in high veneration by the Hindoos. It is astonishing that sometimes this river flows with milk."

The city of Oojein, called in Sanscrit, Ujjayini and Avanti, boasts a most remote antiquity. A chapter in the Hindoo mythological poems named Puranas, is devoted to the description of it, and it is mentioned in the Periplus of the Erythrean sea, as well as by Ptolemy, under the name of Ozene. It is also considered by Hindoo geographers and astronomers, as the first meridian. The modern town is situated about a mile to the southward of the ancient, which is said to have been overwhelmed by a convulsion of nature, about the time of Raja Vicramaditya, when it was the seat of arts, learning, and empire. On the

spot where the ancient city is supposed to have stood, by digging to the depth of 15 or 18 feet, brick walls, pillars of stone, and pieces of wood of an extraordinary hardness are found. Utensils of various kinds are sometimes dug up in the same places, and ancient coins are frequently discovered.

The present city of Oojein is of an oblong form, about six miles in circumference, and surrounded by a stone wall with round towers. Within this space there is some waste ground, but the inhabited part occupies the greatest portion, and was formerly much crowded with buildings and population; but the number of the latter has been gradually diminishing; and recently many have been attracted to the adjacent city of Indore, where Holcar has at length fixed his hitherto migratory court. In appearance, the inhabitants greatly resemble those of Surat and Bombay, and indeed are mostly collected from different parts of the Deccan. The houses are built partly of brick and partly of wood; the frame being constructed of wood, and the interstices filled with bricks, having a roof of lime terrace, or tiles. The principal bazar is a spacious regular street, paved with stone, and having houses on each side two stories high. The lower stories, the ascent to which is by five or six steps from the street, are used as shops; the upper are the habitations of the owners. The most remarkable buildings are four mosques erected by private individuals, and a great number of Hindoo temples. Sindia's palace makes but a poor appearance, being so much surrounded by other buildings as to be little remarked, and indeed for many years past has been but little inhabited by the chief of the family. The south wall of the city washed by the Sipra river, is named Jeysinghpoor, and contains an observatory built by Raja Jeysingh, of Jeypoor, or Jyenagur. It is probable that this city and its vicinity are very unhealthy during the rains, the black rotten soil containing a great deal of vegetable matter, in a state of putrefaction, occasioning exhalations of a most noxious nature, and vitiating the quality of the water.

The officers and public functionaries of the government are almost the only Maharatta inhabitants of Oojein. The Mahommedans form a considerable portion of the population, and are principally composed of a particular class named Bohrahs, or Boras. From Surat are imported various kinds of European and Chinese goods, which are frequently to be bought very cheap here. Pearls and assafœtida (the latter the production of Sinde) are brought here by the route of Marwar, and diamonds from Bundelcund pass through this city to Surat. The public bazars are in general well supplied with vegetables and grain; but in 1804, when visited by a British embassy, persons were seen dead and dying of hunger in the open streets. The inhabitants explained this circumstance by saying that they were strangers, and that the fear an individual felt of shewing

the appearance of superfluity, occasioned this deplorable want of humanity. The neighbouring hills are chiefly composed of granite, but they are covered with vegetable mould of a sufficient depth to admit of cultivation. The town has always been noted for a profusion of excellent fruit, especially grapes, of which they have two gatherings from the same vine in one year. In 1819 there were two coco nut trees growing in Rana Khan's garden, which were justly reckoned great curiosities, and preserved with much care, it being a tree scarcely ever seen at such a distance from the ocean. Adjoining the subterranean ruins on the banks of the Sipra, is Raja Bhirtery's cave. It consists of a long gallery, supported by pillars, with chambers excavated on each side, containing male figures curiously carved in the walls. Here Raja Bhirtery, the brother of Raja Vicramaditya is said to have shut himself up after having relinquished the world. Among the natives a tradition exists, that this cave formerly extended under ground to Benares and Hurdwar.

Ptolemy places Oojein about 255 geographical miles from the mouth of the river Mahy, but the real distance is not more than 200 miles. Rajas of this city are mentioned by Ferishta so early as A. D. 1008, and it was first conquered by the Mahommedans about 1230. The celebrated Raja Jeysingh held the city and territory of Oojein of the Emperor Mahommed Shah, but it soon afterwards fell into the power of the Maharattas, and has been possessed for four generations by the Sindia family. Jyapa Sindia is the first of the race upon record, and was a servant of Bajerow the First, who appointed him to several military commands. He was followed by his son Junkojee, who was murdered after the battle of Paniput; and his uncle Ranojee succeeded to his territories. This chief left two sons, Kedarjee, the father of Anund Row, the father of Dowlet Row Sindia, and Madhajee Sindia, who supplanted his elder brother and seized on the throne. This chief early in life lost a leg at the battle of Paniput, so fatal to the Maharattas, but notwithstanding his mutilation, he distinguished himself as an active and indefatigable commander, and attained to so high a degree of power as completely to controul the whole Maharatta empire. By introducing the European discipline among his troops, he subdued a considerable portion of Hindostan Proper, rendered the Rajpoots tributary, and brought his dominions in contact with those of the Company under the Bengal presidency. Having no issue but daughters, he adopted his nephew, Dowlet Row, who, on his uncle's decease in 1794, succeeded to his hereditary possessions and conquests, in preference to the son of Madhajee's own daughter, Balla Bhye, which youth was subsequently adopted by Dowlet Row, but died soon after.

The whole course of this chieftain's operations from the moment he ascended the throne, manifested a systematic design of establishing an ascendancy in the Maharatta state, on the ruins of the Peshwa's authority. This usurpation ex-

isted in full force at the commencement of the last war between the British government and Tippoo, and his undue influence at that crisis not only deprived the former of every benefit from the nominal alliance with the Peshwa during the whole progress of the war, but afforded positive encouragement to the cause of Tippoo, while it menaced the dominions of the Nizam. For some succeeding years Dowlet Row continued to augment his dominions by unceasing encroachments on his neighbours, until in 1803 he ventured to try his strength with the British, having previously entered into a hostile confederacy with the Nagpoor Raja and Jeswunt Row Holcar. A short and vigorous war, of only four months' duration ensued, in the course of which his armies experienced such signal defeats from Generals Lake and Wellesley, as threatened the utter extinction of his sovereignty. A treaty of peace was in consequence concluded on the 30th of December, 1803, by the conditions of which he ceded to the British government all the territory situated between the Ganges and Jumna, and his possessions of every description in the countries to the northward of these belonging to the Rajas of Jeypoor and Joudpoor, and the Rana of Gohud. He also relinquished to the British government the fort and territory of Broach, and the fort and territory of Ahmednuggur; and all his possessions to the south of the Adjuntee hills, including the fort and district of Jalnapoor, the town and district of Gandapoor, and all the other districts between that range of hills and the Godavery.

The fort of Aseerghur, the city of Boorhanpoor, the forts of Pownaghur and Dohud, and the territories in Khandesh and Gujerat were restored to Sindia. The districts of Dhoolpoor, Baree, and Rajakera, and some other lands north of the Chumbul, Sindia and his adherents were allowed to hold under the Company's protection. By this treaty also, the British government agreed to pay pensions to certain persons attached to the court of that chief, not to exceed 17 lacks of rupees per annum; in consideration of which he renounced all claim to any interference, whatever, in the affairs of his majesty Shah Allum, and engaged to exclude all hostile Europeans from his service. During this short campaign, the city of Oojein was occupied by the Bombay army, but it was restored on the re-establishment of peace. In March, 1804, a subsidiary treaty was concluded, but owing to the subsequent progress of events, never acted upon. Many disputed points still remaining unadjusted, a definitive treaty was arranged by Colonel Malcolm in November, 1805, by which the fortress of Gualior and the territories of Gohud were ceded to Sindia, who agreed to relinquish all the pensions before mentioned, and also to make the course of the river Chumbul the boundary between the two states, from the city of Kotah on the west, to the limits of the Gohud territories on the east. Sindia to

abandon all claim to the north bank, and the British government to the south, with the exception of the talooks of Bhadek and Soosepara, which being on the banks of the Jumna were to remain with the latter. In consideration of these arrangements the British government engaged to pay Sindia personally and exclusively four lacks of rupees per annum, and also to assign a jaghire of two lacks of rupees to Bauzah Bhye, the wife of Dowlet Row Sindia, and of one lack to Chummah Bhye, the daughter of that chief. It was also stipulated, that the British government should not interfere in the affairs of the Rajas of Odeypoor, Joudpoor, or Kotah, or of any other chiefs the tributaries of Sindia, situated in Malwah or Rajpootana. During the course of these negotiations a curious instance of the Maharatta character was exhibited, in the perverted spirit of reluctant sincerity with which Sindia's ministers, after the conclusion of the war, not only confessed the existence of the hostile confederacy, before so repeatedly and strenuously denied, but actually called upon British justice and good faith to punish the treachery of Holcar, for not having fulfilled the stipulations of the said offensive alliance against themselves.

From 1805 to 1813, the stipend of seven lacks was punctually paid to Sindia and his chiefs, by the British government, and no interference with his system of exaction from the petty chiefs within the circle of his influence ever took place. This forbearance, however, does not appear to have been reciprocal, as in 1808, a letter was received from Sindia, by the supreme government, containing an application for the payment of two rupees out of the revenue of every village in Hindostan to Caudir Saheb, and Suda Sunkor Row, which modest and absurd claim was rejected as wholly inadmissible. Notwithstanding the losses sustained in the last war, Sindia's possessions still continued very considerable, and the death of Jeswunt Row Holcar, and the never-ending dissensions of the Rajpoot states raised him to comparative importance. But new enemies, partly of his own creation, arose in the very heart of his dominions. These were the Pindaries, whom in the beginning he fostered, as the system placed at his disposal a large body of predatory horse; but they soon outgrew his means of controul; and latterly, if he had had the inclination, he certainly had not the power to suppress them. In addition to this, his country was impoverished by mismanagement, and his government in such confusion that it scarcely deserved the name; while his authority was almost confined within the walls of Gualior, where he kept himself locked up to escape the insults of his own seditious army. His external politics were not less culpable than his internal government, for by exciting the Pindaries to invade the British dominions, and by promoting the profligate intrigues of the Peshwa for the subversion of the British predominancy, he had dissolved the treaty of 1805,

His intention of making a common cause with the first was clearly established by the evidence of the different Pindary chiefs subsequently made prisoners; and with respect to the last, the Marquis of Hastings caused to be delivered to him in open court, his own letters, signed with his own hand and sealed with his own private seal, evincing the most hostile machinations already matured against the British government. Nothing more was said on the delivery of these letters, except that the Governor-General had no desire to peruse them, and that his highness would perceive the seals were unbroken. The detection was so complete, that no denial or explanation was attempted; and Sindia was accordingly informed that as the subsisting ties of amity did not appear to be sufficiently binding, a new treaty must be concluded, which, while it preserved to him the benefits of the former, would prevent all opposition on his part to the extirpation of the Pindaries.

A treaty was in consequence arranged in 1817, by Captain Close, on the part of the British government; by the conditions of which Sindia engaged to exert his utmost efforts to effect the extermination of the Pindaries, and with the view to the more effectual prosecution of this object to admit British garrisons into the fortresses of Hindia and Aseerghur during the war. The main object of the contracting parties being to prevent, for ever, the revival of the Pindary and predatory system in any form; the 8th article of the treaty of 1805, by which the British government was restrained from entering into treaties with certain chiefs therein specified, was annulled, by which circumstance it was left at liberty to form engagements with the states of Odeypoor, Joudpoor and Kotah, with the principality of Boondee, and with the other substantive states on the left bank of the Chumbul: Sindia's lawful tributes being secured and guaranteed to him. Notwithstanding the apparent moderation of the above treaty, Sindia evaded signing it until the 5th November 1817, when two powerful armies were on his frontier, and even for two months subsequent he made no effort to furnish the auxiliary stipulated; but remained watching the progress of events. The day he selected for affixing his signature happened to be (although then unknown to him) the very one on which the Peshwa Bajerow attacked the British residency at Poona, and had he delayed for 24 hours longer much severer terms would have been imposed on him. Even after its conclusion, notwithstanding the recent alliance, it was necessary for the British armies to maintain the same attitude towards him as if daily in expectation of an attack. This suspicious line of policy continued until the battle of Maheidpoor, when the effect of that sudden annihilation of the power of

Holcar became apparent in the altered conduct of the Gualior Durbar, which from that epocha resigned itself to every arrangement required or suggested by the Governor-General.

The territories at present possessed by Dowlet Row Sindia are still very considerable, but they are so much intermixed that it is not possible to discriminate them. When the treaty of Gualior was concluded, it was distinctly intimated to him, that if any of his sirdars or chiefs proved refractory, or resisted the terms of the treaty, the acquisitions made from them would be retained by the British, as a compensation for the expense incurred. Frequent instances of resistance have occurred which required a considerable expenditure of blood and treasure to subdue, but in almost all these cases the conquered tracts have been restored to Sindia. In 1818, some exchanges of territory took place, in the course of which he transferred to the British government: 1st. The fort and district of Ajmeer. 2d. All his claims on Boondee for tribute, or lands held in lieu of tribute, as also the cession of any recent and unjust acquisitions from the Boondee domains. 3d. The fort and district of Islamnagur.

Since 1809, the controul of Sindia's affairs have been mostly in the hands of a banker named Gocul Paruk, necessary for his financial abilities; but even he appears tired of his office, as in 1818 he proceeded on a pilgrimage to Mathura, from whence he shews no disposition to return. In 1819, Sindia had no legitimate male descendants, but had two daughters married into families hostile to each other. It may be expected that after a lapse of time, when the new federal system of Hindostan shall have acquired stability, that Sindia will see the necessity of shaping his policy accordingly, and of abandoning all hopes of being able to maintain the shadow of ascendancy which has hitherto misled him, and destroy the preposterous notions he entertains of his own importance. At present he stands alone in his political independence; but is completely shackled without, and having latterly completed the ruin of his military commanders, such as Baptiste, Bapoo-Sindia and Jeswunt Row of Jawud, an utter dissolution of his army has ensued, and the troops have crowded to Gualior, clamorous for their arrears; so that it is only the presence of the auxiliary force under British officers that protects his personal safety. This contingent consists of 5000 horse which he is bound to maintain in a state of efficiency, for which purpose Sindia's stipends, Rajpoot tributes, and lands about Aseerghur and Hindia, have been ceded for three years. His internal resources have, from mismanagement, become nearly useless, and as every field for external aggression is shut, his faculties must lie dormant, unless exerted, which is not very likely, in promoting peaceful and industrious habits among his subjects. If he

attempt a reform in the administration of affairs, or to controul his mutinous army, he must call in the aid of the British government, his own authority being quite unequal to the task. Such a crisis, however, might still be averted by the regular payment of his troops and establishment; but the chance of such an improvement is next to hopeless, and when we reflect that the government has hitherto chiefly subsisted on resources extorted by rapine and violence, the final dissolution of so irregular a system may be predicted as not being very remote.

Travelling distance from Calcutta to Oojein by Mundlah 997 miles; from Bombay by Boorhanpoor 500; from Delhi 440; from Hyderabad 534; from Nagpoor 340; and from Poona 442 miles.—*(Hunter, Marquis Hastings, Prinsep, Close, Public MS. Documents, Rennell, Ferishta, Wilford, &c. &c. &c.)*

DEWASS.—A town and principality in the Malwah province, 23 miles S. E. from Oojein. Lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 77° 6′ E. Prior to 1818, this tract had suffered greatly from the devastation of the Soandies.

SONEKUTCH.—A town in the Malwah province, 37 miles E. by S. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 1′ N. long. 76° 23′ E.

MOW.—A town in the province of Malwah, situated 12 miles S. W. from Indore, but not yet laid down in any map. At this place there is a permanent British force of 4000 men stationed, and another force is placed at Neematok towards Odeypoor, connecting the grand cantonments at the city of Ajmeer with Gujerat and Malwah.

SHAHJEHANPOOR.—A town in the Malwah province, 34 miles N. N. E. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 26′ N. long. 76° 20′ E. This is a place of considerable size, and stands on the banks of the Sagormutty river. About half a mile to the westward is a conical hill, conspicuous at a considerable distance.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

INDORE *(Indura, a rat)*.—A city in the province of Malwah, the capital of the Holcar family, although it has been for many years past but very little frequented by them. It is consequently inconsiderable in point of size and population, and being but weakly fortified, has usually surrendered without resistance to every army that has invested it. Lat. 22° 43′ N. long. 75° 48′ E.

Mulhar Row Holcar, of the Gareri or shepherd tribe, the founder of this dynasty, rose to eminence under the first Peshwa, when he received in marriage the daughter of Narayon Row Bund, the maternal uncle of Sahoo Raja. He obtained high commands under Bajerow and his successors, and escaped the massacre at the battle of Paniput. His son Candi Row, and grand daughter Ahili Bhye, both died in his own life-time. His wife Goutama Bhye adopted a nephew, Tuckojee Holcar, who succeeded to the territories of Mulhar Row. On the death of Tuckojee in 1797, he left four sons; two legitimate, Casi Row and

and Mulhar Row; and two illegitimate, Witul Row and Jeswunt Row Holcar. Dissensions arising among them, most of their possessions were seized on by Dowlet Row Sindia after putting to death Mulhar Row; the remainder were usurped by Jeswunt Row Holcar, to the prejudice of the legal heir Casi Row Holcar.

A long contest for superiority ensued between Dowlet Sindia and Jeswunt Row Holcar. In 1801, the army of the latter was defeated by that of Dowlet Row, with the total loss of all his artillery, and the dispersion of his regular battalions, after which this city was captured, and exposed to all the horrors of indiscriminate plunder, during two successive days, to gratify at once the vengeance of Sindia, and the rapacious avarice of his troops. Holcar, however, soon collected another army, which is no difficult matter in India, and in 1802 determined to make Poona the theatre of his operations, towards which he marched with an army mostly composed of adventurers, and estimated at 40,000 cavalry and 30,000 infantry. On receiving intelligence of this movement, Sindia detached an army under the command of Sedasheo Bhow to Poona, which in the month of September effected a junction with the troops of the Peshwa. A general action took place on the 25th of October, 1802, when Sedasheo Bhow was completely defeated, and Holcar entered the capital. During these operations he had so effectually desolated his adversary's territories in the south, that it would have been impossible for him to have subsisted his army, and the myriads attached to it, without invading the dominions of the Nizam. General Wellesley declared, that he had not left a stick standing within 150 miles of Poona; the forage and grain were consumed, the houses pulled down for fuel, and the inhabitants with their cattle compelled to fly from the destruction that threatened them. During the march of the British army from Meritch, except in one village, not a human creature was seen, and this desolation must have soon extended to the British territories, if these hordes of ravagers had not been driven to the north of the Nerbudda.

The fortune of this adventurer was now at its greatest elevation, but his situation was entirely precarious owing to the instability of his resources, which one day made him predominant in the Maharatta empire, and the next reduced him to the condition of a fugitive without a home or capital. Being compelled by the advance of General Wellesley to make a rapid retreat from Poona, his enormous army soon melted away, as the scene of their predatory exploits became limited, and being destitute of any permanent revenue, he was compelled to supply the exigencies of the remainder by indiscriminate plunder. At this time his possessions in the Deccan consisted principally of the district of Amber, situated between Jaluapoor, Aurungabad, and the Godavery; half the district of

Seingaum south of the Godavery (the other half appertaining to Sindia); the fort of Chandore, and a few tracts in Kandesh. The total revenues of the family were computed at 80 lacks of rupees; but a small proportion of this ever reached the chief's treasury, there being no established laws in his dominions, where every head of a village was a petty chief, who seized and kept what he could.

Jeswunt Row remained neuter during the war in 1803 between the combined forces of Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja against the British government; but after its conclusion resumed his predatory habits with increased audacity. After much ineffectual negotiation, a war ensued, which Holcar commenced most inauspiciously, by the murder of three British officers then in his service, Captains Vickars, Todd, and Ryan. In the subsequent actions his forces were routed and dispersed wherever they could be come up with, but his perseverance and activity, added to the unexpected secession of the Bhurtpoor Raja, greatly procrastinated the conclusion and increased the expense of the war. Chandore his capital was captured by the Bombay army in 1804, and the last campaign of this usurper was only a flight before the British army, which pursued him as far as the banks of the Beyah or Hyphasis in the Punjab, where in 1805, being reduced to extreme distress, he sent agents to Lord Lake to solicit a peace.

A treaty was in consequence arranged with him by Colonel Malcolm on the part of the British government, by the conditions of which Holcar renounced all claim on Tonk, Rampoora, Boondee, Lakheree, Sameydee, Bhamingaum, Dare, and other places north of the Boondee hills; and the British engaged to have no concern with the ancient possessions of the Holcar family in Mewar, Malwah, and Harowty, or with any of the Rajas situated south of the Chumbul. The British government also agreed to deliver over such of the ancient possessions of the Holcar family in the Deccan, situated south of the river Tuptee, with the exception of the fort and pergunnah of Chandore, the pergunnahs of Amber and Seinghaum, and the villages and pergunnahs situated to the south of Godavery. These were retained as surety for the conduct of Holcar, which, if such as to satisfy the British government, it engaged at the expiration of 18 months from the date of the treaty, to restore the whole of them to the Holcar family. On the other hand the latter relinquished all claim to the district of Koonch in Bundelcund; but the British government engaged, if his conduct proved conciliatory, to bestow it as a jaghire on Holcar's daughter, Bheema Bhye. On the 22d of February, 1806, by a declaratory article, Tonk, Rampoora, and other tracts to the north of the Boondee hills, were restored to him; so that at the conclusion, although one of the bitterest enemies of the British cause, his loss was trifling compared with what others sustained, who had less seriously offended.

Having thus advantageously extricated himself from a most critical situation, he appears to have relaxed very much from his military habits, and ere long exhibited symptoms of occasional mental derangement. From this he was roused in 1808, by a rebellion which broke out against him under pretence of supporting the pretensions of Casi Row Holcar, and gained such strength that the insurgents obtained possession of all Holcar's territories in the province of Khandesh, (except Jalua,) including the important fortress of Chandore. They subsequently advanced to the frontiers of the Nizam's dominions, with the view of attacking the district of Amber, a small section of country belonging to Holcar, but entirely surrounded by the dominions of the Nizam. The apprehensions of the efforts of this party, it is supposed, influenced Jeswunt Row Holcar to compass the death of Casi Row, and thereby remove the ostensible standard of opposition to his authority. This atrocity, however, only added vigour to the insurrection, which was not so much connected with the assassinated prince, as originating in the personal wrongs of the chiefs who conducted it. Having plundered and desolated a great part of Holcar's possessions, and even those of Sindia between Nerbudda and Tuptee, they proceeded to commit depredations on the territories of the Peshwa and Nizam, alleging necessity as their excuse. This convenient palliative not being considered satisfactory, a portion of the Poona and Hyderabad subsidiary forces were put in motion under the command of Colonels Doveton and Wallace, which having surprised several of their wandering bands, expelled the whole with great loss from the territories of the allies.

The habitual insanity of Jeswunt Row continuing to gain ground, his ministers in 1809 intimated to the British government a request, that their prince might be allowed to visit the idol at Jejoory in the Peshwa's dominions, in hopes that he might thereby get cured of the intellectual malady under which he laboured, but a compliance with this proposal was for obvious reasons declined, and his bodily infirmities being aggravated by those of his mind, he at length closed his eventful, and not very creditable, life on the 27th of October, 1811. His son and successor Mulhar Row Holcar was quietly seated on the throne on the 7th of the ensuing month, but being a minor, the administration of affairs was continued under the management of Toolsee Bhye, his mother, and Balaram Seth, the same as during the incapacity of his father. The influence, however, of Meer Khan, whenever he chose to exert it, was dominant, a great proportion of the late Holcar's troops having attached themselves to him; but the necessity of providing for their pay and subsistence rendered it impossible for him to continue long stationary, and of course occasioned his frequent absence from head quarters. During one of these secessions, Toolsee Bhye, the queen regent,

with her son were driven by the outrageous conduct of the troops to seek shelter with the Raja of Kotah, but her party having subsequently gained the ascendant, she returned, and is reported to have revenged her injuries with great cruelty. On the accession of Mulhar Row, the young prince, his ministers urgently solicited the sanction of the British government to the grant of a khelaut, or dress of investiture, both from the Peshwa and the king of Delhi; but they were informed that the British government did not assume to itself the privilege of confirmation, which is likewise denied both to the Peshwa and to the sovereign of Delhi. They were told that it recognized the state of Holcar as an independent power, and consequently did not admit the necessity of any form of public acknowledgment of Mulhar Row's title to the throne, which would indicate a subserviency on his part that did not in the slightest degree exist.

After the intellectual derangement of Jeswunt Row Holcar, and more especially subsequent to his death, the power he had raised by his crimes, and maintained by his abilities, was fast crumbling to pieces, and its total destruction by the increasing strength of the predatory associations impending. Although some of the chief Pindaries held large jaghires from Holcar's government, they acted so independently of it that they were considered to have withdrawn themselves from it, and the queen regent, Toolsee Bhye, expressed great pleasure at at the prospect of their chastisement. This lady finding herself unable to controul the insolence of the Sirdars, had sent an envoy privately to solicit, that young Holcar and his state might be taken under the protection of the British government, which overture was kindly received, and no burthensome condition imposed, except reciprocal support to put down all predatory banditti. While these arrangements were in progress, all of a sudden the vakeel was recalled, the different chiefs with their respective troops were summoned with the utmost speed, and the determination of marching to assist the Peshwa against the British government proclaimed. Negotiations with the leaders of Holcar's army were then attempted, but these were mistaken for symptoms of weakness, and Toolsee Bhye, the queen regent, who wished to withdraw from the precipice, was carried down to the banks of the Sipra, and there publicly put to death the evening before the battle of Maheidpoor.

On the 17th of December, 1817, the hostile spirit of these ferocious Patan chiefs openly assumed the predominance, attacks were made on the British foraging parties, and all attempts at an amicable adjustment having failed, Sir Thomas Hislop's army attacked that of Holcar at Maheidpoor, and after suffering much slaughter from the latter's artillery, succeeded in capturing the guns, after which the infantry gave way and retreated, pursued by Sir John Malcolm with the regular cavalry and Mysore horse. A treaty of peace with Mulhar Row

Holcar was soon afterwards (on the 6th of January, 1818,) concluded at Mundessor by Sir John Malcolm, and a federal alliance entered into. Prior to this event, the possessions of the Holcar in their then deteriorated state, and exclusive of a few half collections, such as those of Petlawad and Doongurpoor, were as follows:

North of the Nerbudda.

	Rupees.
Boondee	125,000
Malwah	512,000
Bhanpoora	222,000
Narrainghur	60,000
Ghuffoor Khan's jaidad	381,000
About the city of Indore	395,000
Nursinghur and Maheishur	85,000
Total	1,780,250
Brought over	392,000
Grand total	2,172,250

South of the Nerbudda.

	Rupees.
Khurgong Butterie	40,000
Mogulanee and Sheogong	20,000
Rumair	20,000
Talnere	25,000
Nunderbar Sultanpoor	70,000
Aynarrain	5,000
Galna	15,000
Chandore	80,000
Sheogong	40,000
Nuggursool	5,000
Allawur	10,000
Sandeagong	8,000
Dhongwar (near Chandore)	20,000
Umhur	60,000
Total	392,000

The exertions made by Holcar in the short war of 1817, shewed the dangerous impolicy of leaving that state in a condition to be ever again troublesome, on which account it was dismembered of two thirds of its territory; and the greater portion of the lands thus abstracted, transferred to the Rajas of Kotah, Boondee, and other Rajpoot chiefs, whom it was desirable to strengthen, while a portion was also retained to defray the expense of the troops required for the protection of that quarter. Of the first description were the four pergunnahs of Puchpahar, Deeg, Gungrar, and Ahoor, which had been for some years rented from Holcar by Zalim Singh, and were now conferred on him in perpetuity as a recompense for his friendly conduct.

By the treaty of Mundessor, Holcar renounced his claim on all territories, such as Rampoora, Bussunt, Rajapoora, Balbaeeah, Neemserai, Inderghur, Boondee, Lakharee, Samendah, Bamengaum, and other places within and north of the Boondee hills. To the British government he ceded his claims and territories of every description within and without the Satpoora range of hills, including the fort of Sindwa with a glacis of 2000 yards; also all his possessions in the

province of Khandesh, and those districts, such as Amber, Ellore and others, intermixed with the dominions of the Nizam and Peshwa. And finally, Holcar agreed to cede to the British government all claims of tribute from any of the Rajpoot princes, such as the Rajas of Odeypoor, Jeypoor, Joudpoor, Kotah, Boondee, and Karoulee. In consideration of these cessions, the British government bound itself to maintain a fixed force, to preserve the internal tranquillity of Holcar's territories, and defend them from foreign aggressors, this detachment to receive every support from Holcar's government, which was bound to supply when called on a contingent of 3000 auxiliary horse, and to refer all foreign disputes to the arbitration of the British government. It was agreed that Ameer Khan should retain all his territories, and that Ghuffoor Khan should receive an hereditary jaghire, it not being then known that he was suspected of being the principal instigator of the murder of Toolsee Bhye.

Immediately on the conclusion of the above treaty, Mulhar Row Holcar, a boy about 12 years of age, accompanied by his principal chiefs, came into the British camp, when Tanteea Jogh, as prime minister, was vested with the principal management of affairs. At present there served territories of Holcar consist of the following portions:

	Square miles.
Extending along the southern bank of the Nerbudda about	1,800
Along the the north bank of ditto	4,800
In different detached portions	4,900
Total	11,500

The young chief is understood to have abandoned the habit of always residing in camp, and to have fixed his residence at Indore, the ancient capital, and though by the course of recent events the state has fallen in power, the individual now on the throne has certainly benefited. His turbulent and mutinous army has either been killed, dispersed, or paid off; and the territories left, though small, are fertile, yielding even now about 25 lacks of rupees, and have long been the only ones from which any revenue was realized without the employment of an army.

Travelling distance from Bombay 456 miles; from Nagpoor 371, and from Calcutta 1030 miles.—*(Treaties, The Marquis of Wellesley, Public MS. Documents, The Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Sir John Malcolm, Tod, Collins, The Duke of Wellington, &c. &c. &c.)*

JABOOAH.—A town and petty state in the province of Malwah, 80 miles W. S. W. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 22° 46′ N. long. 74° 39′ E. This is situated in a remarkably wild tract of country, inhabited mostly by Bheels and other jungle tribes; but in 1818, it was possessed by some Arab Jemadars, who

were expelled by Sir John Malcolm. In 1819, after the arrangements with Jabooah, Doongurpoor, and Banswarah had been completed, all the troops were withdrawn from these places, it being of importance that their chiefs should act undisturbed by the too zealous interference of their allies, which tends to paralyze their individual efforts. The consciousness that British power and vigilance impend over them, is sufficient to prevent the perpetration of any very great excesses, and in the existing state of society throughout this quarter of Malwah, the administration of the internal police may be advantageously left to their own conducting.—*(Sir John Malcolm, &c. &c.)*

AMJERAH.—A town in the province of Malwah, 56 miles S. W. from Oojein. Lat. 22° 38′ N. long. 75° 10′ E. Amjerah, with the lands attached, belongs to Dowlet Row Sindia, and in 1818 presented a singular anomaly in politics. The lord paramount was without tribute, the tributary without revenue, the soldiers without pay, and the inhabitants without protection, in short, the very elements of government were wanting. But the reverence felt by the natives for ancient institutions, their attachment to families, the prejudices of caste, and the power of habit, in India give such adhesion to village and provincial communities as apparently to render them almost indestructible.—*(Sir John Malcolm, &c.)*

DHAR.—An ancient town in the province of Malwah, 51 miles S. S. W. from Oojein. Lat. 22° 38′ N. long. 75° 19′ E. The historical notices of the kings of Dhar are examined by Major Wilford and Mr. Bentley in the 8th and 9th volumes of the Asiatic Researches. In 1819, after the Pindary war, Meena Bhye, the regent princess of Dhar, expressed the utmost gratitude to Sir John Malcolm, for the generosity with which her son had been treated by the British government, declaring she should at last experience repose, to which her life had hitherto been a stranger.

DECTAN.—A town in the Malwah province, 45 miles S. S. W. from Oojein. Lat. 22° 36′ N. long. 75° 30′ E.

ALLY MOHUN.—A petty state in the south-western corner of Malwah, which appears to be composed of two towns with their lands attached, the first (Ally) situated 22 miles S. W. from Mohun, which stands in latitude 22° 5′ N. long. 74° 18′ E. The jungles of Ally and Mohun, although they may be entered, are very difficult to penetrate, on account of the badness of the road and scarcity of water. They are extremely wild, thinly inhabited, and formerly were considered one of the defences to the contiguous province of Gujerat.

In 1818, Ally Mohun was possessed by Muzaffer, a Mekrany usurper, who was compelled to submit by Sir John Malcolm, and to throw himself on the mercy of the British government. He was in consequence confirmed in the administration of this petty state, it being essential to the gradual introduction

of the pacific system, not to change what was capable of reform, and to disturb existing authorities as little as possible. Besides these general considerations against the removal of a man whose power had been long established, and who was both feared and respected in a country chiefly inhabited by robbers, Muzaffer himself appeared an excellent instrument of reform, as well on account of his personal talents, as from the influence he possessed over his countrymen, the Mekranies, and the other foreign mercenaries in Malwah. The territory of Ally Mohun has long been a noted route for the commercial intercourse carried on between Gujerat and Malwah. In 1819, the road duties were made over to the petty state of Dhar, and a reduction was contemplated; but the minister of Dhar (Raghoonauth Row) declared, that the regulation of the rates might with great safety be left to the state that levied them, for since the restoration of tranquillity so many routes to Gujerat were opened, that the least injustice or extortion would cause that of Dhar to be wholly abandoned.—*(Sir John Malcolm, Burn, &c.)*

MUNDOO *(Mandu)*.—A mountainous district in the province of Malwah, bounded on the south by the Nerbudda river. By Abul Fazel in 1582, it is described as follows: "Circar Mendow, containing 16 mahals; measurement 229,969 begahs; revenue 13,788,994 dams; seyurghal 127,732 dams. This circar furnishes 1180 cavalry, and 10,625 infantry." Although this district formerly contained the capital of the province, it is at present one of the wildest tracts in Hindostan, and, although nominally subject to the Maharattas, has in fact for many years been possessed by the Bheels and other half civilized independent tribes. The principal towns are Mundoo, Baug, and Mheyshwur.

MUNDOO.—The chief town of the preceding district to which it has communicated its name. Lat. 22° 23′ N. long. 75° 20′ E. 65 miles S. S. W. from Oojein. This city is now much decayed, but was formerly the capital of the Khillijee Patan sovereigns of Malwah, and, in 1582, is described by Abul Fazel as a city of prodigious extent, 22 miles in circuit, and then containing numerous monuments of ancient magnificence. In 1615, when visited by Sir Thomas Roe, it was greatly dilapidated, and its grandeur had disappeared. It then occupied the top of a very high and extensive mountain.—*(Abul Fazel, Rennell, Scott, &c.)*

BAMPOOR.—A town in the Malwah province, 55 miles S. S. E. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 22° 40′ N. long. 78° 5′ E.

KOTRA.—A town in the Malwah province, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, 85 miles S. S. W. from Oojein. Lat. 22° 10′ N. long. 74° 56′ E.

MATWAUR.—A town in the Malwah province, 85 miles E. N. E. from Broach. Lat. 22° 4′ N. long. 74° 32′ E.

MHEYSHWUR *(Mahesh Asura)*.—This town stands on the banks of the Ner-

budda, and is a noted station selected by armies marching north or south for crossing that river. It is also named Chooly Mheyshwur. Lat. 22° 8′ N. long. 75° 32′ E. 76 miles S. by W. from Oojein.

BAUG.—A town in the province of Malwah, 80 miles S. W. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 22° 26′ N. long. 74° 54′ E. In this neighbourhood several cave temples have been discovered, the architectural decorations of which are said to be of a superior description.

BULRA.—A town in the province of Malwah, 51 miles N. by E. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 53′ N. long. 76° 6′ E.

AUGGUR.—A town in the Malwah province, 42 miles N. by E. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 45′ N. long. 76° 5′ E. To the north of this town, which is subject to Sindia, is a fine lake.

SARANGPOOR *(Surangapura)*.—A large district in the province of Malwah, situated between the 23d and 24th degrees of north latitude. The town of Sarangpoor is situated in lat. 23° 36′ N. long. 76° 30′ E. 48 miles N. N. E. from the city of Oojein. The other principal towns are Bensrode and Shujawulpoor, and the whole were recently possessed by Kurreem Khan the Pindary.

BENSRODE.—A town in the province of Malwah, 51 miles E. N. E. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 25′ N. long. 76° 37′ E.

SHUJAWULPOOR *(Suzawelpur)*.—This is a large town situated on the north-east bank of the river Jummary, and contains a fort or walled town, on the outside of which is a good bazar, where there are many well built houses. Opium of a tolerably good quality is cultivated to some extent in the vicinity, and the town is a considerable market for striped muslins, doputtahs, &c. Lat. 23° 24′ N. long. 76° 44′ E. 60 miles E. by N. from Oojein. Until the Pindary war, the Vinchoor Cur, (one of the Peshwa's functionaries), had large possessions in the neighbourhood of Shujawulpoor and Ashta, which Sindia's commanders were in the ordinary habit of plundering. After the peace of 1818, a portion of this pergunnah was transferred to the Nabob of Bopaul, as a reward for services rendered.

ASHTA.—A town in the Malwah province, 59 miles E. by S. from the city of Oojein. Lat. 23° 3′ N. long. 76° 46′ E. This vicinity was formerly the head quarters of Cheetoo the Pindary; but after the suppression of these depredators was conferred on the Nabob of Bopaul.

DEWREE.—A town in the Malwah province, 35 miles S. W. from Bopaul. Lat. 22° 58′ N. long. 77° 6′ E.

RAISSEEN.—A large district in the province of Malwah, of which it occupies the south western quarter, where it is separated from the Deccan by the Nerbudda river, and the hills extending along its northern bank. It is one of the

original Mogul subdivisions of Malwah, and is mentioned by Abul Fazel, as containing 32 mahals; but for many years past it can scarcely be said to have been subordinate to any regular government, having become a favourite haunt of the Pindaries, from whence they infested the surrounding countries, until extirpated in 1818.

RAISSEEN.—A town and hill fort in the province of Malwah, the capital of the district, but now greatly decayed. Lat. 23° 31′ N. long. 77° 52′ E. 23 miles N. E. from Bopaul. The country from hence to the Nerbudda is remarkably wild and mountainous, but the hills are not so precipitous as those to the south. *(Heyne, &c. &c.)*

CHEEPANEER.—A town in the Malwah province, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, 52 miles S. by W. from Bopaul. Lat. 22° 33′ N. long. 77° 20′ E.

NEMAWUR.—A town in the Malwah province, situated on the north bank of the Nerbudda, almost opposite to Hindia. Lat. 22° 29′ N. long. 77° 5′ E. The Dussera of 1815 was celebrated at Cheetoo's cantonments at Nemawur, by a greater concourse of Pindaries than had ever before been assembled at one place, and preparation was evidently making for an expedition of more than ordinary importance. A short time afterwards, immense detachments from hence crossed the Nerbudda, pursuing a southernly course, and after ravaging the Deccan, returned to the same place with immense booty, and comparatively little damage.

CHYNPOORBAREE.—A town in the Malwah province, 48 miles E. by S. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 2′ long. 78° 15′ E.

CHOKEEGHUR.—A town in the province of Malwah, miles E. by S. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 5′ N. long. 78° 16′ E.

BOPAUL *(Bhupala, a king)*.—The capital of a small independent state in the province of Malwah, 100 miles E. from Oojein. Lat. 23° 17′ N. long. 77° 31′ E. In 1790, this was an extensive place surrounded by a stone wall, on the outside of which was a large gunge or mart, with wide and straight streets, but it has since suffered so much, that in 1817, it presented a very ruinous appearance. On a rising round to the S. W. on the outside of the town, is a fort called Futtehghur, built on a solid rock. It has a stone wall with square towers, but in 1790 had no ditch. To the south-west under the walls of this fort is a very extensive tank or pond, formed by an embankment at the confluence of five streams issuing from the neighbouring hills. The tank is about six miles in length. The hills in the neighbourhood consist of a soft free stone, and a reddish granite, from which issues the small river Patarah; and the Betwa also has its source in the vicinity. The territory belonging to this small principality is of an uneven surface, diffi-

cult access, and much covered with jungle, on which account, it has for many years past been selected as a place of refuge by banditti of all descriptions, and latterly, was the very centre of the Pindary influence. The soil, especially in the vallies, is naturally fertile, and particularly well adapted for the production of cotton; but on account of the hordes of depredators by which it has been infested, the cultivation has for many years been confined to the immediate vicinity of the fortified places, some of which are very strong from their advantageous positions.

The town and territory of Bopaul are occupied by a colony of Patans, to whom they were assigned by Aurengzebe. In 1790, its revenue was estimated at ten lacks of rupees, but the many disasters it since sustained have greatly reduced it, especially the effect of the long siege sustained by the Nabob Vizier Mahommed against the united forces of the Nagpoor Raja and Dowlet Row Sindia, the first of whom had some years before seized on Hosseinabad and some other tracts in that quarter. In 1809, the court of Nagpoor solicited the assistance of the British government, in subduing the country of Bopaul, the chief of which, either from terror or inclination, then appeared to favour the operations of the Pindaries. But although adverse to the maxims of British policy to confederate in any scheme of conquest, the Nabob was informed, that if, after the lenity shewn to him, when the army under Sir Barry Close was in the field, he should again unite with the Pindaries in violating the territories of the Nagpoor Raja, it would then become a measure of justice and expediency to place an effectual check on his future proceedings. In 1812, Bopaul made a long and successful defence against the combined forces of the two Maharatta chiefs above mentioned, which gained the reigning nabob, Vizier Mahommed, considerable celebrity. In the urgency of his distress, he earnestly solicited the protection of the British government; but all interference was declined, on the principle of not interfering with the political concerns of independent states, not in alliance or connection with the British government.

So harsh a reply was not merited by a family which still possesses the strongest testimonials from General Goddard of the important services he received from the existing Nabob of Bopaul, to whose exertions the success of that officer's extraordinary march is in a great measure to be attributed. Besides this, the Bopaul state had maintained its independence against the most active efforts of the Maharattas, and its position between the territories of Nagpoor and those of Sindia presented an obstacle to the consolidation of the Maharatta power in that part of India. Being apparently abandoned to its fate, in 1814 it was harder pressed then ever by the combined forces of Sindia and the Nagpoor Raja, and was on the eve of being subdued, so that no time was to be lost if the

British government intended to preserve it from destruction. This was at length determined on when the Pindarry power had attained its acmé; and the young Nabob of Bopaul accepted with eagerness the terms offered to his father, Vizier Mahommed, who had died on the 17th March, 1816. During the subsequent operations he cheerfully furnished his contingent, and was rewarded by the acquisition of the five districts of Ashta, Ichawur, &c. along with some other lands from the Vinchoor Cur's forfeited jaghire, the whole of which had been recently held by the Pindaries. A portion of Shujawulpoor was subsequently added, and Islamnagur was obtained for this chief from Sindia by negotiation. The definitive engagement, which fixed in perpetuity the relations of the nabob, was concluded on the 26th January, 1818, and by the conditions of it he is only bound to furnish 600 horse, and 400 foot. He was also liberated from the payment of all tribute, so that his terms have been particularly favourable.—*(Prinsep, Public MS. Documents, Hunter, &c. &c.)*

ISLAMNAGUR.—A town and pergunnah in the province of Malwah, which, although only 5 miles north from the city of Bopaul, belonged to Sindia, but in 1818, through the mediation of the British government, were procured by exchange for the Nabob of Bopaul. Lat. 23° 21′ N. long. 77° 31′ E.

SEEORE.—A town in the Malwah province, 22 miles W. by S. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 15′ N. long. 77° 10′ E. This place stands on the banks of the little river Roota Seein, and is surrounded by a large grove of mangoe and other trees. The soil adjacent is a black mould, but not much cultivated. Here is a considerable manufactory of checked and striped muslins.—*(Hunter, &c.)*

ICHAWUR.—A town in the province of Malwah, transferred with the pergunnah attached to the Nabob of Bopaul, after the conclusion of the Pindary war. Lat. 23° 2′ N. long. 77° 7′ E. 32 miles S. W. from Bopaul.

DOORYAH.—A town in the province of Malwah, 21 miles N. W. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 24′ N. long. 77° 15′ E.

BURSEAH.—This place, in 1817, was the principal cantonment of Kurreem Khan, the Pindary, yet when visited by the British detachment in pursuit of him, the country was found well cultivated and flourishing, provisions cheap, and flour selling at 60 seers for the rupee, a condition not to have been expected in a Pindary domain. The surrounding country is naturally productive and well supplied with wood and water. The town consists of numerous well built houses, good streets, and an excellent bazar. Lat. 23° 38′ N. long. 77° 30′ E. 26 miles N. from Bopaul.

SOHAYA.—A town in the province of Malwah, 30 miles N. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 42′ N. long. 77° 32′ E.

BILSAH *(Bilvesa)*.—A town belonging to Dowlet Row Sindia, situated on the

Betwa river, 32 miles N. E. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 33′ N. long. 77° 55′ E. The town or fort of Bilsah is enclosed with a stone wall, furnished with square towers and a ditch. The suburbs without the walls are not very extensive, but the streets are spacious, and contain some good houses. This place is situated nearly on the southern extremity of the district, where it is contiguous to that of Bopaul. The town and surrounding country is celebrated all over India, for the excellent quality of the tobacco, which is bought up with great eagerness, and exported. The country is open, and in 1790, was well cultivated. To the eastward of the town, at the distance of six furlongs, is a high and steep rock, on the top of which is a durgah, consecrated to the memory of a Mahommedan saint named Jelal ud Deen Bhokari. Bilsah was first conquered by the Mahommedans about A. D. 1230, and again in 1292. Travelling distance from Oojein 140 miles; from Nagpoor 249; from Benares 416; and from Calcutta, by Mundlah 867 miles.—*(Hunter, Ferishta, Rennell, &c.)*

ANDIA.—A town in the province of Malwah, 45 miles N. N. E. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 46′ N. long. 78° E.

DHAMONEE.—A fortified town in the province of Malwah, 92 miles N. E. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 57′ N. long. 78° 46′ E. This place formerly belonged to the Raja of Nagpoor; but lying to the north of the Nerbudda, had been ceded in 1818 by Appa Saheb. The governor and garrison, however, (probably owing to secret instructions) refused to comply, and the place was in consequence invested by the army under General Marshall, and batteries having been raised within breaching distance, the garrison surrendered on the 24th of March, 1818.

SAUGOR *(Sagara)*.—A town in the province of Malwah, 74 miles E. S. E. from Seronge. Lat. 23° 48′ N. long. 78° 47′ E. This place was very little known although so near to the British frontier in Bundelcund, until taken possession of by the detachment under General Marshall in 1818, when it was discovered to be of considerable magnitude, and exhibited every appearance of an opulent and flourishing city, although situated in the heart of the Pindary country. Saugor was originally ceded by the Peshwa, at the treaty of Poona, the manager of it, Benaick Row, having given shelter to the Pindaries, and openly suffered levies to be made in the town for the Raja of Nagpoor. It surrendered without resistance; and soon after, all the hill forts and strong holds dependent on it, 16 in number, were given up without firing a shot; and the inhabitants in general appeared entirely satisfied with the change. By taking actual possession of Saugor, the security of the adjacent parts was not only increased, but, by superior management, the hereditary Jaghiredar, (Nana Govind Row, of Calpee,) received three times the sum ever before realized by him from the rents. The past receipts of this territory have been estimated at

698,000 rupees; out of which certain portions are to be paid to Nana Govind Row and Benaick Row; although the latter had forfeited his claim by his refractory conduct. The entire occupation of this strong country has rendered it necessary to station part of the military force required to overawe central Hindostan within the limits of the Saugor district.—*(The Marquis of Hastings, Prinsep, Public Journals, &c.)*

RATGUR.—A town in the Malwah province, 75 miles N. E. by N. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 51′ N. long. 78° 31′ E.

SALEMOW.—A town in the province of Malwah, 77 miles E. from Bopaul. Lat. 23° 23′ N. long. 78° 43′ E.

PINDARIES.—The banditti so well known by their predatory incursions under the name of Pindaries, at first chiefly occupied that portion of the Malwah province in the vicinity of Nemawur, Kantapoor, Goonas, Beresha, and part of the Bilsah and Bopaul territories; but in process of time extended themselves towards the centre, and would ere long have absorbed the whole. The designation of Pindary was first applied to a body of roving cavalry which accompanied the Peshwa's armies in their expeditions, and it is impossible not to be struck with the resemblance which Pindara bears in sound to Pandour, as Cŏzauk does to Cossack. When the Peshwa ceased to interfere practically with Hindostan north of the Nerbudda, leaving that division of the Maharatta empire to Sindia and Holcar, the Pindaries split into two factions, assuming the names of Sindia Shahee and Holcar Shahee respectively, accordingly as they attached themselves to the families, or rather to the fortunes of these chiefs.

With respect to their composition, the Pindaries were principally, and the leaders wholly, of the Mahommedan religion, but all castes were allowed to associate with them. Remnants of foreign wars, and the refuse of a disbanded soldiery, they constituted a nucleus round which might assemble all that was vagabond and disaffected, all that was incapable of honest industry and peaceful occupation, and all that was opposed in habit and interest to the peace of Hindostan. Like the early Maharattas, they systematically prosecuted a war of plunder and devastation on all their neighbours: and in recent times were gradually obtaining the substantiality of organized states; their progress being assisted by the daily augmenting weakness of the surrounding powers, and their inability to coerce their own dominions. Among themselves they lived in societies of one or two hundred, governed by the individual who had the most personal influence. These inferior chiefs were called Mhorladar, or Thokdar, from Mhorla and Thok, the names of the party when united. The aggregate body was named Tull; detached parties, Cozauks; the main body, Lubbur; and the principal leader, Lubbrea.

When an enterprizing leader had determined on a plundering expedition, he sent messengers to the neighbouring Thokdars to engage their co-operation, and reconcile their animosities, and also to fix on a period for their assembling. In general, the leader had no hereditary claims, his influence depending on the popular opinion of his activity and military talents, as he possessed no power to enforce obedience, or to chastise refractory conduct; the sole attraction to his standard being the hope of plunder. This precarious attachment, however, changed to an absolute submission, when the party had advanced far into an enemy's country, their chance of escape and eventual return greatly depending on their implicit obedience to his orders. When ready to start, the Lubbrea, or leader, mounted his horse, and going to some distance, sounded his trumpet, and mustered his followers. They then advanced, the leader in front, with his standard and trumpets, the rest following without order or regularity. They usually commenced their march about day break, and continued in motion until mid-day, when they halted for two or three hours, and again moved forward, stopping to refresh at sunset. At nine at night they changed their ground, and again at 12, (each halt being called a tull) removing four or five miles each time, and occasionally they made a third change of position. Their longest marches seldom exceeded 30 miles per day; their most usual only eight or 10; but from the extended manner in which they advanced, they covered an immense space of ground.

In a dark night they kept together by calling to each other as they rode along, and when the Lubbrea changed his ground he sounded his trumpet, and the word passed from one to the other, so that although there was much confusion, they were seldom so much dispersed as to be unable to re-assemble. If attacked they gallopped off in all directions, trusting to chance for again uniting. The cozauks, headed by some resolute men, detached themselves in parties of from 10 to 20, and scoured the country for 10 or 12 miles in front; and on the flanks of the main body. Should the tull be dispersed by defeat, or accident, the leader's trumpet is sounded; but as many might happen to be too remote to hear the summons, he usually sets fire to a stack of straw, or some stubble, to indicate the spot where he was posted. When arrived at a halting place, the Lubbrea dismounted and fixed his standard, beyond which every Pindary passed, leaving the leader in the rear. The men of each thok kept close together, being generally the friends relations or dependants of the Thokdar. No guards were set, the Lubbrea being expected to watch for the benefit of the whole. In the day time they took off the saddles from the horses, but never unsaddled them during the night, sleeping with the bridle in their hand. Their horses were generally a small hardy breed, mostly bred in Malwah; but seldom

more than half of a corps were well mounted. They were all excellent riders, although they underwent no training either in horsemanship or in the use of arms. The latter consisted of the sword and spear, for although sensible of the superiority of fire-arms, very few carried them on account of their weight and incumbrance. It is a commonly received notion, that the Pindaries gave their horses large quantities of opium to enable them to support the incessant fatigue to which they were subjected, but this narcotic was only resorted to in extreme cases, after a very harrassing march. In their retreats, these wretched animals were commonly much overladen, having besides their rider and his arms, a considerable quantity of cloths, brass pots, and other plunder to carry.

Their information respecting the country towards which they were going, was in general, but not always, very defective; and spies they seldom employed. As they advanced, the chance of plunder was the first inquiry, and the next what troops and fire-arms they were likely to encounter. They pillaged every place of which they could obtain possession, but were easily to be beaten off by fire-arms, and generally gave up the attack after one or two casualties. As soon as they got into a town or village, each man seized such of the inhabitants as fell in his way, and by threats, or torture, compelled them to disclose their hidden treasure, if they had any; no regard being paid to age or sex. There was no regular division of the plunder, each retaining what he could procure; but as some persons must always remain outside to hold the horses, a proportion was reserved for them. As may be supposed, many quarrels arose about the distribution of the plunder, which were usually referred to the Lubbrea for adjustment, and a small tax on each formed his chief source of emolument. While advancing and free from apprehension, they covered the face of the country, but during their retreats it was their practice to march much more compactly. Plunder, and not glory, being their object, they carefully evaded all attempts to bring them to action; and when retreating, their endeavours were all directed to escape undiscovered. In these cases, when pursued, they seldom at first took the road they ultimately intended to follow, winding and doubling across the country, making more frequent marches and halts than they were accustomed to do, and confounding their pursuers by their incessant change of place. When they thought they had sufficiently misled their enemies, they suddenly changed their route, and hurried on with increased speed until out of danger. In this manner these bands of plunderers undertook long journies of two or three months, over a vast space of hostile country, through the midst of armies, whose incontestible superiority they knew from dire experience; yet, in 1816, it was rather owing to good fortune

and relaxation on the part of the enemy, that two of their most numerous corps were overtaken and punished by Majors Macdowal and Lushington.

The early appearance of the Pindaries in the Peshwa's armies has been already mentioned; but it was not until 1794 that they became tangible, lands in that year having been assigned by Madhajee Sindia to their principal leaders in the valley of the Nerbudda, and among the hills which bound it to the north. From the date above mentioned until A. D. 1800, their principal leaders were two brothers named Heeroo and Burrun, whose standards were erected when the rivers became fordable. Out of the profits of their plundering excursions these chiefs were from the first enabled to keep together a large military force, without much territorial revenue; but in process of time, by additional assignments of land, and conquests achieved from the Grassias or aboriginal chieftains among the mountains of the Nerbudda, they gradually extended their territorial influence and consolidated their authority. About A. D. 1800, the two chiefs, Heeroo and Burrun, either died or were put to death; the one at Nagpoor, and the other at Aseerghur. Dost and Wausil Mahommed were the sons of the first; the two Runjuns of the last; but the pre-eminence descended to Kurreem Khan, and other chiefs of superior enterprize. Kurreem Khan, during the confusion of the Maharatta empire consequent to the war with the British government, contrived to seize on some possessions of Sindia and the Peshwa's jaghiredars in Malwah; so that after the conclusion of hostilities, in 1806, he was in possession of not less than eleven pergunnahs, the principal of which were Bursea, Chipaneer, Ashta, Shujawulpoor, Sarangpoor, Ichawur, and Sehoree above the ghauts of the Nerbudda; together with Satwas and other places within the valley, yielding a revenue of 15 lacks of rupees per annum, besides the compensations he received to abstain from plundering. He stood, however, on the brink of a precipice, for he was soon afterwards inveigled to an interview by Sindia, who plundered his camp, recovered his possessions, and seized the Pindary's person, which he kept imprisoned at Gualior for five years.

Cheetoo, Dost Mahommed, and Namdar Khan, who had all served under Kurreem, now emerged into strength and notice. In 1811, Kurreem Khan purchased his liberty for six lacks of rupees, punctually paid through the agency of Zalim Singh, of Kotah, and levying fresh troops recovered great part of his former territory. In that year he induced the other Pindary leaders to assemble under his standard, when they mustered the formidable number of 25,000 cavalry, and several battalions of new-raised infantry, the whole of which he proposed to march against Nagpoor; but being forsaken by Cheetoo, who

turned against him, and attacked by Sindia's best troops, he was defeated and compelled to fly beyond the Chumbul to Ameer Khan, who detained him under restraint until 1816. Cheetoo now took the lead, and in 1814 the relative strength of the different bands was estimated as follows, viz.

Under Cheetoo's command, of which 5,000 were good .	10,000 horse.
Besides the Holcar Shahee Pindaries, about	5,000
	15,000
Kurreem Khan's remaining band	4,000
Dost Mahommed	6,000
Under independent leaders of inferior note	6,000
Total	31,000

So formidable an assembly of predatory cavalry, ready to overspread the adjacent countries, could not be viewed without extreme horror, and it imposed the necessity of maintaining an unceasing watch along the whole extent of the British dominions, which had been ravaged for two consecutive years, while for the security of the Deccan the subsidiary forces of the Nizam and Peshwa were annually and unavailingly called out. In fact, in 1816-17, the military defensive preparations against the Pindaries, on the side of Madras, were nearly as great as they would have been to carry on operations of the most decisive nature; and besides the hazards to be calculated from their positive strength, were those arising from the contagion of their example.

Under these circumstances the British government considered itself called on to execute the most imperious duty required of a sovereign, that of protecting its peaceable subjects from desolation, and to prevent the repetition of invasions known to be preparing with all their attendant atrocities, some of which will be found detailed under the article GUNTOOR. The Pindaries were evidently too numerous and too powerful to be resisted by the lesser states, and it became indispensable wholly to extinguish an association, whose undisguised principle of subsisting by indiscriminate plunder, placed it in a state of war with every regular government. It was also manifest, that without a complete reform of the condition of central India, no partial operations, however brilliant and successful, or for a time distressing to the predatory hordes, could prevent the evil from recurring in a more terrific shape. Temporary expedients would leave the whole to be done over again, and it became absolutely necessary to settle the line of demarkation between the chief of a regular government, and the leader of a banditti. To eradicate the existing habits of predatory adven-

ture was the grand object in view, and under the guarantee and controul of the British government, it did not appear impracticable to establish a confederacy, hostile to all plundering aggressions and territorial mutation. But the task of overtaking and destroying 30,000 light cavalry over the immense field where they had the power of moving, required no ordinary effort, while their fate was regarded with the greatest anxiety by Sindia, Ameer Khan, and Holcar. The Pindaries were in fact an integral, though unavowed, and sometimes hardly manageable part of Sindia's army, and were always the ready auxiliaries of Ameer Khan. Indeed, although the army of the last was better fashioned, and more systematically organized than the Pindary forces, still he was essentially nothing but a leader of freebooters.

These obstacles were formidable, but the measures adopted by the Marquis of Hastings were equal to the exigence, and most vigorously followed up. With the view of effecting their complete extirpation, he determined to surround the Pindaries with a cordon of efficient corps, which should converge simultaneously towards a common centre. This was accordingly done, and he took the field in person on the 16th October, 1817. After the campaign had commenced, a report was received of an invitation given by Sindia to the Pindaries, that if they would come near to Gualior, he would break his treaty, and join them with the forces he had collected at that fortress. The Pindaries in consequence proceeded in full march towards Gualior, without encountering the slightest impediment from the troops of Sindia stationed on their route; but by this time the British army had returned from beyond the Sinde, and occupied the passes through the hills, which extend at some distance south of Gualior from the Sinde to the Chumbul. These passes were the only routes by which communication could take place between the Pindaries and Sindia, and the latter was informed by the Marquis of Hastings that he was come to protect him from the intrusion of these plunderers. Sindia probably could have dispensed with this anxiety for his safety, but returned a civil answer; while the Pindaries, finding their advance impeded, attempted to retire, but were so hotly pursued by the different divisions of the British army, that resting place they found none.

By the conclusion of November, 1817, the Pindaries, by the combined operations of the British armies, had been expelled from all their old haunts in Malwah. Kurreem and Wausil Mahommed retreated, as above related, towards Gualior, expecting succour from Sindia; while Cheetoo sought refuge with Jeswunt Row Bhow, a refractory chief under Sindia, who held large possessions in Odeypoor. In both these attempts they were frustrated by the arrangements planned by Lord Hastings, until at length, after numberless marches and coun-

termarches, surprizes, routes, and flights, their followers dwindled down to a mere handful; their chiefs, with the exception of Cheeto, were either seized or threw themselves on the mercy of the British government. Namdar Khan was the first to avail himself of its clemency; Wausil Mahommed was seized near Gualior; Kurreem, after sustaining many hardships, surrendered to Sir John Malcolm on the 15th February, 1818; his sons, Shuhamut Khan and Ruttun Koonwar, afterwards gave themselves up to Zalim Singh of Kotah. Wausil Mahommed continuing refractory, and being detected in an attempt to escape took poison and died. Cheetoo pursued in all directions found his way from Jawud, in Rajpootana, to near Hindia on the Nerbudda, from whence he fled towards Khandesh. He afterwards made overtures through the Nabob of Bopaul, then retracted, and although almost deserted by his followers endeavoured to join Appah Saheb the ex-Raja of Nagpoor, among the Mahadeo hills, in which attempt there is every reason to believe he was devoured by a tiger. In this manner was accomplished the extirpation of the Pindaries, the possibility of which was at one time doubted; but it was evident even these marauders could not exist without a home and powerful support. To expel them from the territories which they occupied, to identify them with all who gave them aid or protection, and to tolerate no neutrality, was the only mode by which this dreadful and increasing evil could be overcome. At present there remains not in Malwah a spot that a Pindary can call his home. From the manners and habits of the people of India, however, new corps of marauders may be expected continually to arise; but these must be put down as they occur, and it is not probable that any banditti will ever again attain so formidable a strength of organization.

It now remained to provide for such of the Pindary chiefs as had voluntarily surrendered, which the Governor-General was of opinion could be most conveniently done by assignments of lands, it being understood that the tracts occupied by the Pindaries themselves, before they were driven from their haunts were generally in a good state of cultivation. This circumstance afforded reason to hope that with proper encouragement and management, accompanied by a vigilant superintendance, and instant suppression of any symptom of recurrence to their former habits, a considerable proportion of these robbers might ultimately betake themselves to peaceful and industrious pursuits. But in selecting lands for them, it was highly expedient to attend to the nature of the country, so that their new establishments should not be fixed in a region of great natural strength, or difficult access; but as far as practicable in one of an opposite description. It was also thought advisable to avoid collecting them into large numbers in one position, more especially the chiefs, whom it was desirable to

settle at a considerable distance from each other. Neither was it ever intended to make them assignments of land on an extensive scale, a comfortable support to themselves, families, and immediate adherents, being all that was contemplated. At present Kurreem Khan is the only one who has been definitively provided for, having been settled with his family on an estate purchased in the Goruckpoor district, yielding about 1000 rupees per month.—*(Williams, Prinsep, The Marquis of Hastings, Public MS. Documents, &c. &c. &c.)*

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